

Mary E. Hutchinson

Brookport

Albany

8-A
The Science of the English Language.

A

PRACTICAL GRAMMAR:

IN WHICH

WORDS, PHRASES, AND SENTENCES

ARE

CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THEIR OFFICES;

AND

THEIR VARIOUS RELATIONS TO ONE ANOTHER,

ILLUSTRATED BY A COMPLETE SYSTEM OF DIAGRAMS.

“Speech is the body of thought.”

BY S. W. CLARK, A. M.,

PRINCIPAL OF CORTLAND ACADEMY,

AUTHOR OF “FIRST LESSONS IN ENGLISH GRAMMAR,” “ANALYSIS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE,” “GRAMMATIC CHART.”

FORTIETH EDITION, REVISED.

NEW YORK:

A. S. BARNES & Co., 111 & 113 WILLIAM STREET,
(CORNER OF JOHN STREET.)

1868.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR AS A SCIENCE.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR AS AN ART.

CLARK'S
ENGLISH GRAMMARS AND ANALYSIS.

Clark's First Lessons in English Grammar. Designed for Beginners, and Introductory to the Practical Grammar. By S. W. CLARK, A.M., Principal of Cortland Academy. 18mo, half bound.

Clark's New English Grammar. A Practical Grammar, in which Words, Phrases, and Sentences are Classified according to their Offices; and their various Relations to each other, illustrated by a Complete System of Diagrams. 12mo, cloth

A Key to Clark's Grammar, containing Diagrams of all the Sentences for Analysis and Parsing found in the Grammar.

Clark's Analysis of the English Language—with a Complete Classification of Sentences and Phrases, according to their Grammatic Structure. Designed as a Sequel to the English Grammar. 12mo, half bound.

Clark's Grammatic Chart. Exhibiting the Analysis of Sentences, the Analysis of Phrases, the Classification and Modification of Words. Mounted. Price \$2 50.

Entered, according to Act of Congress, in the year 1864,

BY S. W. CLARK,

In the Clerk's Office of the District Court of the United States for the Northern District of New York.

PREFACE.

THE GRAMMAR of a Language, Quintilian has justly remarked, is like the foundation of a building—the most important part, although out of sight, and not always properly valued by those most interested in its condition.

In the opinion of many modern educators, there is a tendency, on the part of all, to neglect this important branch of English Education—not so much from a conviction that the science is not important, as that there is a radical defect in the common method of presenting it to the attention of the learner. This was the sentiment of the Author when, some fifteen years since, he was called to the supervision of a Literary Institution, in which was established a department for the education of Teachers. Accordingly, recourse was had to oral instruction; and, for the convenience of Teachers, a manuscript Grammar was prepared, which embodied the principles of the science and the Author's mode of presenting it. These principles and this method have been properly tested by numerous and advanced classes during the seven years last past. The manuscript has in the mean time, from continued additions, unexpectedly become a book. It has received the favorable notice of Teachers, and its publication has been, by Teachers, repeatedly solicited. To these solicitations the Author is constrained to yield, and in the hope and belief that the work will “add to the stock of human knowledge,” or at least tend to that result, by giving an increased interest to the study of the English language, it is, with diffidence, submitted to the public.

In revising the work for publication, an effort has been made to render it simple in style, comprehensive in matter—adapted to the capacities of the younger pupil, and to the wants of the more advanced scholar. It is confidently believed that the METHOD of teaching Grammar herein suggested, is the true method. The method adopted by most text-books may be well suited to the wants of foreigners in first learning our language. They need first to learn our Alphabet—the power and sounds, and the proper combinations of Letters—the definitions of words and their classification according to definitions.

But the American youth is presumed to know all this, and be able to catch the thought conveyed by an English Sentence; in fine, to be able to use practically the language, before he attempts to study it as a science. Instead, therefore, of beginning with the Alphabet, and wasting his energies on technical terms and ambiguous words, he should be required to deal with thought as conveyed by Sentences. Accordingly, this introduction to the Science of Language begins with a Sentence, properly constructed, and investigates its structure by developing the offices of the Words which compose it; making the *office* rather than the *form* of a Word, determine the class to which it belongs.

As an important auxiliary in the Analysis of Sentences, a system of DIAGRAMS has been invented and introduced in the work. It is not claimed for the DIAGRAMS that they constitute any essential part of the Science of Language; nor do Geometrical Diagrams constitute such a part of the Science of Geometry; Maps, of Geography; or Figures, of Arithmetic. But it will not be denied that these are of great service in the study of those branches. Experience has established their importance. Let, then, the use of Diagrams, reduced as they are here, to a complete system, be adopted in the Analysis of Sentences, and their utility will become as obvious in the Science of Language, as it is in the science of Magnitude; and for precisely the same reason, that an abstract truth is made tangible; the eye is permitted to assist the mind; the memory is relieved, that the judgment may have full charter of all the mental powers.

Conscious that novelty, as such, should not bear sway in the investigations of Science, the Author has been careful, neither to depart from the ordinary method of presenting the Science, for the sake of novelty, nor, from dread of novelty, to reject manifest improvements. The old Nomenclature is retained, not because a better could not be proposed, but because the advantages to be gained would not compensate for the confusion necessarily consequent to such a change. But the terms purely technical have been introduced *as a natural inference from facts previously deduced*. Principles and Definitions are preceded by such Remarks as have fully established their propriety. The inductive method of arriving at truth has been followed throughout—with that it stands or falls.

ADVERTISEMENT

TO THE FIFTEENTH EDITION.

IN sending forth this revised Edition of the PRACTICAL GRAMMAR, the Author takes occasion to render acknowledgments to his numerous professional brethren who have so favorably received the former editions, and also to express his gratitude for the various criticisms which its use has suggested. Especially is he gratified that, with frank and faithful notices of the omissions and defects in the former Editions, there has been a unanimous approval of the SYSTEM and METHOD herein adopted. Accordingly, the work has been rewritten upon the basis of the former Edition.

In making the revision, an effort has been made to perfect the work in all its parts—to supply defects—to simplify the arrangement—to bring the various parts more fully in harmony with the system—and to adapt it more completely to Class Exercises.

To Part I. important Additions have been made; the Elements of Sentences have been discussed more fully, and the DIAGRAMS are made to render the Analysis of Sentences more perspicuous. ANALYSIS discloses to the Student the right use of Words, according to established custom, thus furnishing the only appropriate key to the true Etymology of the Language.

In Part II. ETYMOLOGY is so presented as to furnish a proper foundation for syntax; the several *materials* are adapted to their various positions in the *structure* to be reared.

In Part III. careful attention has been given to make the other branches of the Science of Language subserve SYNTAX and harmonize with it. In this effort consists the great improvement in the Grammar as now presented; the Analytical is made to accompany the Synthetic.

Exercises in CRITICISM are inserted, in which common errors are noticed and corrected by proper references to Rules, Notes, and Observations in the text.

The extensive and constantly increasing circulation of the original work, encourages the hope that, with its present improvements, it will secure the desired approbation of a discerning public.

CORTLAND ACADEMY, HOMER, N. Y.

THE GRAMMATIC CHART.

THIS CHART presents, at one view, the entire Etymology of the English language. It is useful chiefly in reviews and in etymological parsing.

The large edition of the Chart may be used more profitably, as, with it, the whole class may follow the reciting pupil—all having their attention directed to the same thing, at the same time. In the absence of a large Chart, the small ones may be used—each student using his own.

It will be noticed that the Chart does not give the Definitions of the Classes and Modifications of words; but simply presents the principles of Etymology; showing, for example,

That a "Sentence" consists of "Principal Elements," and may have "Adjuncts." That the Principal Elements of a Sentence must be a "SUBJECT," a "PREDICATE," and (if Transitive) an "OBJECT." That the *Subject* may be a "WORD," a "PHRASE," or a "SENTENCE." That if the Subject is a *Word*, it is a "NOUN" or "PRONOUN"—if a *Noun*, it is "COMMON" or "PROPER"—if a *Pronoun*, it is "PERSONAL," "RELATIVE," "INTERROGATIVE," or "ADJECTIVE." That the Noun or Pronoun must be of the "NEUTER," "FEMININE," or "MASCULINE" Gender—of the "FIRST," "SECOND," or "THIRD" Person—of the "SINGULAR" or "PLURAL" Number—and that it must be in the "NOMINATIVE" Case.

If the Subject is a "*Phrase*," it is a "SUBSTANTIVE" Phrase—and may be (in form) "PREPOSITIONAL," "PARTICIPIAL," "INFINITIVE," or "INDEPENDENT"—and may be "TRANSITIVE" or "INTRANSITIVE."

If the Subject is a "*Sentence*," it is a "SUBSTANTIVE" Sentence—and may be "SIMPLE" or "COMPOUND," "TRANSITIVE" or "INTRANSITIVE."

Thus, a comparison of the Chart with the General Principles, on pages 175-180, will readily suggest to the skillful Teacher the proper method of using it in *review*.

The proper use of the Chart in *Etymological Parsing* is illustrated by EXERCISES, pp. 181-186.

CONTENTS.

PART I.

	PAGE
INTRODUCTORY EXERCISES	11
GENERAL DEFINITIONS.	
LANGUAGE— <i>Spoken—Written</i>	15
GRAMMAR— <i>General—Particular</i>	15
ELEMENTS OF LANGUAGE— <i>Letters—Words—Phrases—Sentences</i>	16
WORDS— <i>Classification</i>	17
PHRASES— <i>Classification</i>	19
“ “ OFFICES—Substantive	19
“ “ “ Adjective	19
“ “ “ Adverbial	20
“ “ “ Independent	20
“ “ FORMS—Prepositional	20
“ “ “ Infinitive	20
“ “ “ Participial	21
“ “ “ Independent	21
“ <i>Analysis</i>	21
SENTENCES— <i>Analysis</i>	23
“ “ Principal Elements	25
“ “ Adjunct Elements	27
“ “ Exercises	29
“ Questions for Review	35
“ DIAGRAMS—General Rules	36
“ <i>Classification</i>	38
“ Questions for Review	47
“ EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS.	
“ <i>Simple—Intransitive</i>	48
“ “ <i>Transitive</i>	50
“ <i>Compound</i> “	51
“ “ <i>Mixed</i>	56
“ <i>Complex</i>	57

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

	PAGE
CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS—their <i>Forms</i>	69
“ “ “ <i>Uses</i>	73
NOUNS—Classification	73
“ Modification	75
“ “ <i>Gender</i>	76
“ “ <i>Person</i>	78
“ “ <i>Number</i>	78
“ “ <i>Case</i>	82
PRONOUNS—Classification	88
“ “ <i>Personal</i>	88
“ “ <i>Relative</i>	91
“ “ <i>Interrogative</i>	92
“ “ <i>Adjective</i>	93
“ Recapitulation	95
ADJECTIVES—Classification	97
“ Modification	101
“ Exercises	103
VERBS—Classification	107
“ Modifications— <i>Voice</i>	108
“ “ <i>Mode</i>	109
“ “ PARTICIPLES	111
“ “ <i>Tense</i>	115
“ Recapitulation	117
“ Conjugation	120
“ Review	139
“ Irregular— <i>List</i>	140
“ Unipersonal	143
ADVERBS	149
“ Classification	151
“ Modification	153
PREPOSITIONS— <i>List</i>	156
Exercises	160
CONJUNCTIONS— <i>List</i>	162
Exercises	164
EXCLAMATIONS	165
WORDS OF EUPHONY	166
Words varying in their Etymology	167
“ “ “ <i>Observations</i>	170

PART III.

SYNTAX.

	PAGE
ELEMENTS OF SENTENCES—Analysis	175
“ PHRASES “	178
Exercises by the CHART—Sentences.....	181
“ “ “ Phrases.....	185
RULE 1.—THE SUBJECT of a Sentence.....	186
“ “ “ <i>Word</i>	187
“ “ “ <i>Phrase</i>	190
“ “ “ <i>Sentence</i>	191
RULE 2.—THE PREDICATE.....	194
“ THE VERB.....	195
“ “ <i>Number</i>	195
“ “ <i>Person</i>	197
“ “ <i>Mode and Tense</i>	200
“ “ <i>Voice</i>	201
“ “ Exercises.....	204
RULE 3.—THE OBJECT— <i>Word</i>	208
“ “ <i>Phrase</i>	213
“ “ <i>Sentence</i>	215
“ “ Exercises.....	217
RULE 4.—PRONOUNS— <i>Personal</i>	219
“ “ <i>Relative</i>	221
“ “ <i>Interrogative</i>	224
RULE 5.—PRONOUNS— <i>Adjective</i>	225
“ “ Exercises.....	228
RULE 6.—INDEPENDENT CASE.....	229
ADJUNCTS.....	232
RULE 7.—ADJECTIVES.....	235
“ “ <i>Qualifying</i>	239
“ “ <i>Specifying</i>	240
RULE 8. “ <i>Possessive</i>	242
“ “ <i>in Predicate</i>	247
RULE 9.—ADVERBS.....	253
RULE 10.—PARTICIPLES—as Nouns.....	260
“ “ as Adjectives.....	264
“ “ as Adverbs.....	265
“ “ as Prepositions.....	265
“ “ in Predicate.....	265
“ “ Exercises.....	267

	PAGE
RULE 11.—INFINITIVE VERB	267
“ “ <i>Phrase</i>	269
RULE 12.—PREPOSITIONS	270
RULE 13.—CONJUNCTIONS	273
RULE 14.—EXCLAMATIONS	277
Words of EUPHONY	278
GENERAL RULES	279
Recapitulation of the Rules of Syntax	280

PART IV.

PROSODY.

MARKS OF PUNCTUATION	282
GRAMMATICAL AND RHETORICAL SIGNS	288
COMPOSITION— <i>Prose—Verse</i>	291
VERSIFICATION	294
FIGURES	298
“ Grammatical	299
“ Rhetorico-Grammatical	300
“ Rhetorical	301

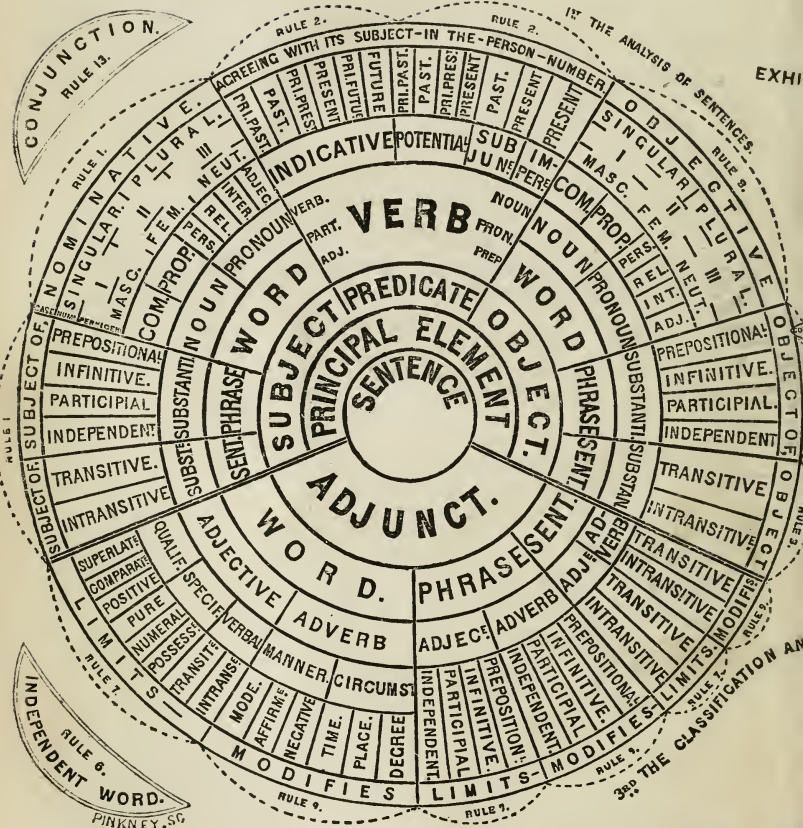
APPENDIX.

LETTERS—Their Forms, <i>Roman, Italic, Old English</i>	305
“ “ <i>Capitals</i>	306
“ Their Offices	308
“ Abbreviations	309

CLARK'S GRAMMAR

EXHIBIT

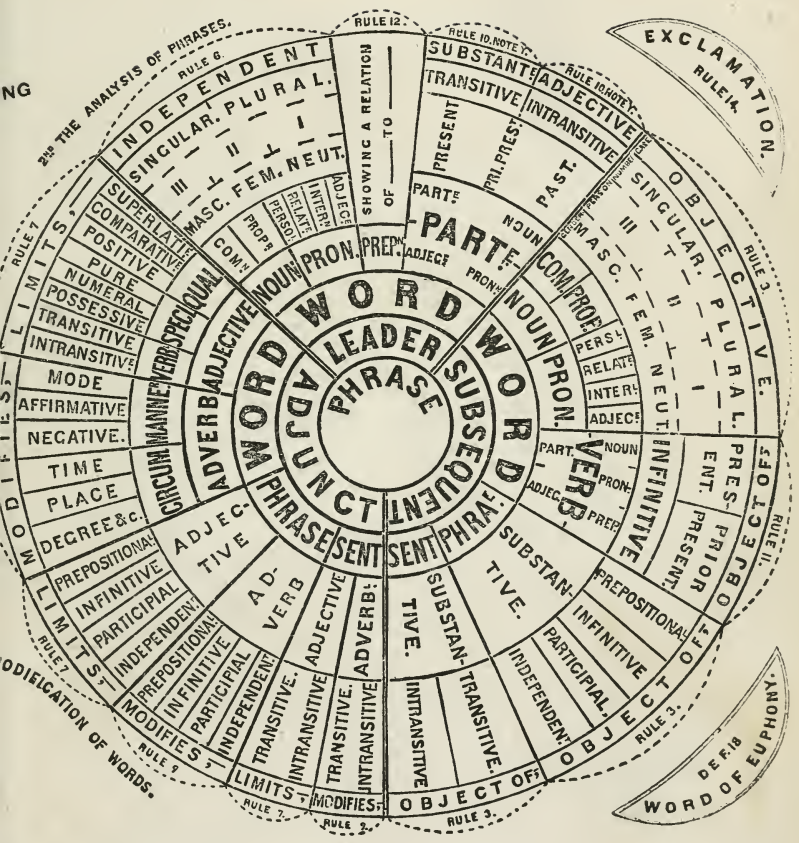
CONJUNCTION.
RULE 13.



PINKNEY, SC.

PUBLISHED BY A. S. BAR

GRAMMATICAL CHART.



ES & BURR-NEW YORK.

PART I.

INTRODUCTORY EXERCISES.

“ God moves in a mysterious way,
His wonders to perform ;
He plants his footsteps in the sea
And rides upon the storm.”

Quest. Of whom is something asserted in the lines above written ?

Ans. Something is said concerning “*God.*”

What is said of God ?

A. God “*moves.*”

How does God move ?

A. “*In a mysterious way.*”

“ God moves in a mysterious way ”—why ?

A. “*To perform his wonders.*”

Concerning whom is something more said ?

A. Something more is said concerning “*God.*”

Why do you think so ?

A. Because, in this connection, “*He*” means God.

What more is said of God ?

A. He “*plants.*”

He plants what ?

A. He plants “*footsteps.*”

He plants what footsteps ?

A. “*His*” footsteps.

He plants his footsteps—*where* ?

A. “*In the sea.*”

What more is said of God ?

A. He “*rides.*”

He rides—*where* ?

A. “*Upon the storm.*”

In the lines written above, what is the *use* or *office* of the word “*God*” ?

A. It is used to tell *who* “*moves.*”

What is the use of the word “*moves*” ?

A. To tell what God *does.*

What is the use of “*in a mysterious way*” ?

A. To tell *how* God *moves.*

What is the use of “*his wonders to perform*” ?

A. To tell *for what purpose* God *moves.*

What is the use of “*He*” ?

A. To tell *who* “*plants footsteps*” and “*rides.*”

What is the use of “*plants*” ?

A. To tell *what* “*He*” *does.*

What is the use of “*his*” ?

A. To tell *whose* footsteps.

What is the use of “*footsteps*” ?

A. To tell *what* He *plants.*

What is the use of “*in the sea*” ?

A. To tell *where* He *plants footsteps.*

What is the use of “*rides*” ?

A. To tell *what* “*He*” *does.*

What is the use of “*upon the storm*” ?

A. To tell *where* He *rides.*

REMARK.—The young Pupil has seen, in this exposition of the four lines written above, that *words have meaning*; and that when they are properly put together, they convey the thoughts of the person who wrote them, to those who read them.

The above may be used as an appropriate MODEL for the following

ADDITIONAL EXERCISES FOR ANALYSIS.

1. "The | *sun* | *rose* | on the sea | ."
2. "A | *mist* | *rose* | slowly | from the lake | ."
3. "The | *night* | *passed* | away | in song | ."
4. "*Morning* | *returned* | in joy | ."
5. "The ' *mountains* | *showed* | their | gray | *heads* | ."
6. "The | blue | *face* | of ocean | *smiled* | ."
7. " *Day* | *declines* | ."
8. "Hollow | *winds* | *are* | in the | pines | ."
9. "Darkly | *moves* | each | giant | *bough*, |
O'er the sky's last crimson glow | ."
10. "Nature's | richest | *dyes* |
Are floating | o'er Italian skies."
11. "A golden *staff* his *steps supported*."
12. "The dying *notes* still *murmur* on the string."
13. "A purple *robe* his dying frame *shall fold*."
14. "At the heaving billows, *stood* the meager *form* of *Care*."
15. "Oft the *shepherd* called *thee* to his flock."
16. "The comely *tear* *steals* o'er the cheek."
17. "The *storms* of wintry *Time* *will* quickly *pass*."
18. "Thus in some deep retirement *would* I *pass*
The *winter-glooms*, with friends of pleasant soul.
19. "Then *comes* the *father* of the tempest forth,
Wrapt in thick glooms."
20. "Thy *bounty* *shines* in Autumn, unconfined,
And *spreads* a common *feast* for all that live."
21. "Some in the fields of purest ether *play*,
And *bask* and *whiten* in the blaze of day."
22. "On thy fair bosom, waveless stream,
The dipping *paddle* *echos* far,
And *flashes* in the moonlight gleam."
23. "Who can *observe* the careful *ant*,
And not *provide* for future want."
24. "Nature with folded hands *seemed* there,
Kneeling at her evening prayer."

25. ————— “The woods
Threw their cool *shadows* freshly to the west.”
26. “The clear *dew* is on the blushing bosoms
Of crimson roses, in a holy rest.”
27. “*Spring* calls out each voice of the deep blue sky.”
28. “*Thou’rt* journeying to thy spirit’s home,
Where the skies are ever clear.”
29. ————— “A summer breeze
Parts the deep masses of the forest shade,
And lets a sunbeam through.”
30. “The *pin*es grew red with morning.”
31. “*Sin* hath broke the world’s sweet peace—*unstrung*
Th’ harmonious *chords* to which the angels sung.”
32. “And *eve*, along the western skies,
Spreads her intermingling *dyes*.”
33. “The blooming *morning* oped her dewy eye.”
34. “No *marble* marks thy couch of lowly sleep ;
35. But living *statues* there are seen to weep.”
36. “A distant *torrent* faintly roars.”
37. “His gray *locks* slowly *waved* in the wind,
And *glittered* to the beam of night.”
38. “Oft *did* the *harvest* to their sickle *yield*.”
39. “Their *furrow* oft the stubborn *glebe* has broke.”
40. “How *jocund* *did* they drive their team afield !”
41. “How *bowed* the *woods* beneath their sturdy stroke !”
42. “The breezy *call* of incense-breathing morn,
The *swallow*, twittering from the straw-built shed,
The cock’s shrill *clarion*, or the echoing *horn*,
No more shall rouse them from their lowly bed.”

LANGUAGE.

DEFINITION 1.—*Language* is any means of communicating thought, feeling, or purpose.

OBS. 1.—Thoughts and feelings are indicated—

1. By certain expressions of the features, by gestures, and by other physical acts. This is called *Natural Language*.
2. By articulate sounds, or by written characters. This is called *Artificial Language*.

OBS. 2.—Natural language is common to all intelligent beings, and is understood by all without previous instruction.—Smiling, frowning, laughing, weeping, are instances of natural language.

OBS. 3.—Artificial language is invented by men.—Sounds are made to indicate thoughts by mutual or common consent. Generally, each nation has its peculiar language.

PRINCIPLE.—*Artificial Language* is

SPOKEN AND WRITTEN.

DEF. 2.—*Spoken Language* consists in vocal sounds, indicative of thought, of feeling, or of purpose.

DEF. 3.—*Written Language* consists in artificial characters, so arranged and combined as, by common consent, to represent thought or emotion.

REM.—It is customary to give to every science a *name*, by which it may be distinguished from other sciences; accordingly, people have agreed to call the science which treats of Language

GRAMMAR.

DEF. 4.—*Grammar* is the science of Language.

OBS. 1.—There are certain *General Principles* of Grammar which are common to all languages.—Hence the term GENERAL GRAMMAR.

OBS. 2.—But each particular language has some idioms and forms of construction *peculiar to itself*.—Hence the term PARTICULAR GRAMMAR.

REM.—Every *Particular Grammar* should include all the principles of *General Grammar*,

DEF. 5 (a).—*English Grammar* is the Science which investigates the principles, and determines the proper construction of the English language.

(b).—ENGLISH GRAMMAR is the art of communicating thought in appropriate words.

REM.—The articulate sounds of language are indicated by Letters.

DEF. 6.—A *Letter* is a character used to indicate a sound, or to modify the sound of another letter.

EXAMPLES.—A in hat, hate, hall, hart.

OBS.—For observations on the properties and offices of Letters, see APPENDIX, Note A.

REM.—*Letters* are combined to form *Words*.

DEF. 7.—A *Word* is a Letter, or a combination of Letters, used as the *sign* of an idea.

EXAMPLES.—*God*—*mysterious*—*stood*—*slowly*—*Ah!*—*by*—*and*.

REM.—*Words* are combined to form *Phrases* and *Sentences*.

DEF. 8.—A *Phrase* is a combination of words, not constituting an entire proposition, but performing a distinct office in the structure of a Sentence or of another Phrase.

EXAMPLES.—*At midnight, in his guarded tent,*
The Turk was dreaming of the hour
When Greece, her knee in suppliance bent,
Should tremble at his power.

DEF. 9.—A *Sentence* is an assemblage of words, so combined as to assert an entire proposition.

EXAMPLES.—1. Night approaches.
 2. Day is departing.
 3. William is sleepy.
 4. Socrates was a philosopher.
 5. Virtue secures happiness.
 6. John and George have arrived.
 7. God created the heaven and the earth.
 8. "The dying notes still murmur on the string."

WORDS.

CLASSIFICATION.

REMARK.—In a Discourse, words are used—

1. As *Names* of beings, places, or things ;
2. As *Substitutes* for names or facts ;
3. As *Qualifiers* or *Limiters* of names ;
4. To *assert* an act, being, or state ;
5. To *modify* an assertion or a quality ;
6. To express *relations* of things or of thoughts ;
7. To *introduce* or to *connect* Words and Sentences ;
8. To express a *sudden* or an *intense emotion* ; or,
9. For Rhetorical effect.

Hence, by their *uses*—

Words are distinguished as,

- | | | |
|--|--|--|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>Nouns</i>, 2. <i>Pronouns</i>, 3. <i>Adjectives</i>, 4. <i>Verbs</i>, | | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. <i>Adverbs</i>, 6. <i>Prepositions</i>, 7. <i>Conjunctions</i>, 8. <i>Exclamations</i>, and 9. <i>Words of Euphony</i>. |
|--|--|--|

DEF. 10.—A Word used as the name of a being, of a place, or of a thing, is called

A Noun.

EXAMPLES.—*God—man—sea—way—wonders—emotion.*

DEF. 11.—A Word used *for a Noun*, is called

A Pronoun.

EXAMPLES.—*I—thou—he—she—it—who—what—that.*

DEF. 12.—A Word used to qualify, or otherwise limit a Noun or a Pronoun, is called

An Adjective.

EXAMPLES.—*Mysterious [way]—his [wonders]—the [sea].*

DEF. 13.—A Word used to assert an *act, being, or state*, of a person or a thing, is called

A Verb.

EXAMPLES.—[God] *moves*—[He] *plants*—[Day] *declines*.

DEF. 14.—A Word used to modify the signification of a Verb, an Adjective, or another Modifier, is called

An Adverb.

EXAMPLES.—“A mist *rose slowly* from the lake.”

“The task was *exceedingly* DIFFICULT.”

“He came between us *very* OFT.”

DEF. 15.—A Word used to express a relation of words to each other, is called

A Preposition.

EXAMPLES.—1. “*At* MIDNIGHT, *in* his guarded TENT,

2. The Turk WAS DREAMING *of* the HOUR.”

DEF. 16.—A Word used to introduce a Sentence, or to connect Words and Phrases, is called

A Conjunction.

EXAMPLES.—1. “*And* I am glad *that* he has lived thus long.”

2. “God created the HEAVEN *and* the EARTH.”

DEF. 17.—A Word used to express a sudden or intense emotion, is called

An Exclamation.

EXAMPLES.—*Alas!*—*oh!*—*shocking!*

DEF. 18.—A Word used chiefly for the sake of *sound*, is called

A Word of Euphony.

EXAMPLES.—1. “*There* are no idlers here.”

2. “Now, *then*, we are prepared to define our position.”

3. “*Even* in our ashes live their wonted fires.”

OBS.—For observations on ‘*Words of Euphony*,’ see Part II.

PHRASES.

CLASSIFICATION.

REMARK.—Phrases are used as *substitutes* for Nouns, Adjectives, and Adverbs; or they are independent in construction. Hence, by their *offices*,

Phrases are distinguished as,

- | | | |
|-------------------------|--|-------------------------|
| 1. <i>Substantive</i> , | | 3. <i>Adverbial</i> , |
| 2. <i>Adjective</i> , | | 4. <i>Independent</i> . |

DEF. 19.—A *Substantive Phrase* is a phrase used as the Subject or the Object of a Verb, or the Object of a Preposition.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “*To be*, contents his natural desire.”
 2. “*His being a minister*, prevented his rising to civil power.”
 3. “I doubted *his having been a soldier*.”
 4. “The crime of *being a young man*, I shall attempt neither to palliate nor deny.”

What “contents his natural desire”?

“*To be*,”—*i. e.*, mere existence.

“I doubted”—*What?*

“His having been a soldier.”

“The crime of”—*What?*

“Being a young man.”

OBS.—Substantive Phrases perform *offices* similar to those of Nouns and Pronouns.

DEF. 20.—An *Adjective Phrase* is a phrase used to qualify or limit the application of a Noun or a Pronoun.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “The time of *my departure* is at hand.”
 2. “*Forgetting the things that are behind*, I press forward.”

What “time”?

“Of my departure.”

3. “The dishes of *luxury* cover his table.”

What “dishes”?

“Of luxury.”

DEF. 21.—An *Adverbial Phrase* is a phrase used to modify the signification of a Verb, of an Adjective, or of an Adverb.

EXAMPLES.—1. “God moves *in a mysterious way.*”

2. “He is powerful *for evil—impotent for good.*”

“God moves”—*How?*

“In a mysterious way.”

“Powerful”—*In what respect?*

“For evil.”

DEF. 22.—An *Independent Phrase* is a phrase not grammatically connected with any other element.

EXAMPLE.—“*The hour having arrived*, we commenced the exercises.”

OBS.—The office of an Independent Phrase is *Logical*, not *Grammatical*. Thus, in the sentence, “The hour having arrived, we commenced the exercises,” the phrase “the hour having arrived,” indicates the *time* of commencing the exercises; but it is not joined to the word “commenced” by any connecting word.

Phrases are distinguished also by their *forms*, as,

1. *Prepositional*,

2. *Infinitive*,

3. *Participial*,

4. *Independent*.

DEF. 23.—A *Prepositional Phrase* is a phrase introduced by a Preposition, having a *Noun* or a *Substitute* as its object of relation.

EXAMPLES.—1. “*In a mysterious way.*” “*To me.*”

2. “*A habit of moving quickly* is another way of *gaining time.*”

DEF. 24.—An *Infinitive Phrase* is a phrase introduced by the Preposition *to*, having a Verb as its object of relation.

EXAMPLES.—1. “*To love*”—“*To study*”—“*To be diligent.*”

2. “We ought not *to be satisfied* with present attainments.”

3. “I sit me down *a pensive hour to spend.*”

DEF. 25.—A *Participial Phrase* is a phrase introduced by a *Participle*, having an Object or an Adjunct.

EXAMPLES.— “*Scaling yonder peak*,

I saw an eagle, *wheeling near its brow.*”

DEF. 26.—An *Independent Phrase* is introduced by a *Noun* or a *Pronoun*, followed by a *Participle* depending upon it.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “*The cars having left*, we chartered a coach.”
 2. “Thus talking, *hand [being] in hand*,
 Alone they passed on to their blissful bower.”

ANALYSIS OF PHRASES.

A *Phrase* consists of $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{Principal Elements} \textit{ and} \\ \textit{Adjunct Elements.} \end{array} \right.$

DEF. 27.—The *Principal Elements* of a *Phrase* are the words necessary to its structure.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “Rays | of limpid light | gleamed | round their path | .”
 2. “Birds sang | amid the sprouting shade | .”
 3. “Manhood is disgraced | by the consequences | of neglected youth | .”

DEF. 28.—The *Adjuncts* of a *Phrase* are the words used to modify or limit the offices of other words in the *Phrase*.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “Rays | of limpid light | gleamed | round their path | .”
 2. “Birds sang | amid the whispering shade | .”
 3. “See! Winter comes | to rule the varied year | .”
 4. “With what an awful, world-revolving power,
 Were first the unwieldy planets lanced along
 The illimitable void.”

The *Principal Elements* of a *Phrase* consist of
 The *Leader* and the *Subsequent*.

DEF. 29.—The *Leader* of a *Phrase* is the word used to introduce the *Phrase*—generally connecting its *Subsequent* to the word which the *Phrase* modifies or limits.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “Like a spirit | it came, | in the van | of a storm | .”
 2. “Enough remains | of glimmering light |
 To guide the wanderer’s steps aright | .”
 3. “The previous question being demanded, | the debate closed.”

Obs.—The Leader of a Phrase is *commonly* the first word in *position*—but not *always*; Adjuncts may precede. [See the last example.]

The *Leader* of a Phrase may be

A <i>Preposition</i> , A <i>Participle</i> ,		The <i>Preposition</i> <i>to</i> , A <i>Substantive</i> .
---	--	--

EXAMPLES.—1. “I am monarch *of* all I survey ;
 My right there is none *to* dispute.”

2. “*Taking* a madman’s sword | *to* prevent | his *doing* mischief, | can not be regarded | *as* robbing him | .”

3. “The evening *star* having disappeared, | we returned to the castle.”

DEF. 30.—A *Participle* is a word derived from a Verb, retaining the signification of its verb, while it also performs the office of some other “part of speech.”

Obs.—For observations on Participles, see page 111.

DEF. 31.—The *Subsequent* of a Phrase is the Element which follows the Leader as its object of *action* or *relation*, or which depends on it in construction.

EXAMPLES.—“At *parting*, | too, there was a long ceremony | in the *hall*, | buttoning up *great-coats*, | tying on woolen *comforters*, | fixing silk *handkerchiefs* over the *mouth* and up to the *ears*, and grasping sturdy *walking-canes* to support unsteady *feet*.”

The *Subsequent* of a Phrase may be,

A <i>Word</i> ,		A <i>Phrase</i> ,		A <i>Sentence</i> .
-----------------	--	-------------------	--	---------------------

EXAMPLES.

1. *A Word*.—“Sweet was the sound, when oft | at evening’s *close* | Up yonder *hill* | the village murmur rose.”

2. *A Phrase*.—“A habit | of *moving quickly*, | is another way | of *gaining time* | .”

3. *A Sentence*.—“The footman, in his usual phrase,
 Comes up with ‘*Madam, dinner stays*.’”

Obs. 1.—The *Subsequent* of a Phrase is sometimes suppressed.

EXAMPLE.—“These crowd *around*, to ask him of his health.”

Obs. 2.—When any Element of a Phrase is suppressed, that part of the Phrase which is expressed—whether Leader, Subsequent, or Adjunct—is to be regarded as the *representative* of the whole Phrase, and, in the analysis of a Sentence, it should be construed as the whole Phrase would be if fully expressed.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “These crowd *around*,” i. e., *around him*.
 2. “William will come *home*,” i. e., *to his home*.
 3. “Mary has come to school *early*,” i. e., *at an early hour*.

“*Around*,” as an Element in the *Sentence*, is an *Adverb*—for it is a *representative* of the Adverbial Phrase, *around him*.

“*Around*,” as an Element in the *Phrase*, is a *Preposition*.

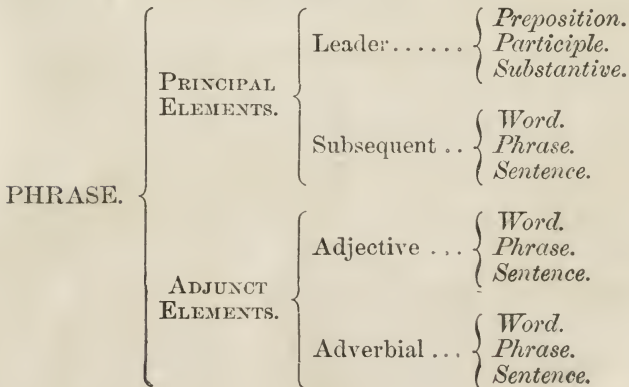
“*Home*,” as an Element in the *Sentence*, is an *Adverb*—for it is a *representative* of the Adverbial Phrase, *to his home*.

“*Home*,” as an Element in the *Phrase*, is a *Noun*.

“*Early*,” as an Element in the *Sentence*, is an *Adverb*—for it is a *representative* of the Adverbial Phrase, *at an early hour*.

“*Early*,” as an Element in the *Phrase*, is an *Adjective*.

RECAPITULATION.



SENTENCES.

REMARK.—A Sentence may be resolved into its Elements.

DEF. 32.—The *Elements* of a Sentence are the parts which enter into its structure.

REM.—In the structure of Sentences, certain *general principles* are involved, which are common to all languages.

1. We have *that of which something is declared*. This is called the *Subject* of the Sentence.

2. There must be a word or words used to *declare*—positively, negatively, or interrogatively—something of the subject. This is called the *Predicate*.

These two parts are essential to the structure of a Sentence.

3. The Predicates of some Sentences assert acts which pass over to some person or thing.

The names of such persons, places, or things are called *Object Elements*.

4. There are often other Elements, used to *qualify*, to *limit*, or to *modify* the various parts of Sentences. These are called *Adjunct Elements*.

The *Parts* of a Sentence are distinguished as

Principal Elements and *Adjunct Elements*.

DEF. 33.—The *Principal Elements* of a Sentence are the parts which make the unqualified assertion.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Birds fly.*

2. *The sun shines.*

3. “*The night passed away in song.*”

4. “*The mountains showed their gray heads.*”

5. “*Thy bounty shines in Autumn, unconfined.*

6. *And spreads a common feast for all that live.*”

7. “*The king of shadows loves a shining mark.*”

8. “*In the beginning, God created the heaven and the earth.*”

DEF. 34.—The *Adjunct Elements* of a Sentence are such as describe or modify other elements.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “*The | night passed | away | in song.*”
 2. “*The king | of shadows | loves | a | shining | mark.*”
 3. “*There | in his noisy mansion, | skilled to rule, |*
 4. “*The | village | master | taught | his | little | school | .’*”
 5. “*Lend me your songs, ye nightingales.*”
 6. “*O Liberty! I wait for thee.*”

REM.—There are still other words, which are neither Principal Elements nor Adjuncts,—words which are sometimes used in connection with the Sentence, but which do not constitute an integral part of it Hence,

DEF. 35.—Words accompanying a Sentence without entering into its structure, are called

Attendant Elements.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “*Lend me your songs, ye nightingales!*”
 2. “*O Liberty! I wait for thee.*”
 3. “*There are no idlers here.*”
 4. “*I sit me down, a pensive hour to spend.*”
 5. “*Even in our ashes live their wonted fires.*”
 6. “*Friends, Romans, Countrymen! lend me your ears.*”

ANALYSIS AND CLASSIFICATION.

The Principal Elements of a Sentence are,

The *Subject*, | The *Predicate*, | The *Object*.

OBS.—Every Sentence must have, at least, one *Subject* and one *Predicate*, expressed or understood.

DEF. 36.—The *Subject* of a Sentence is that of which something is asserted.

OBS.—The Subject of a Sentence is always *Substantive* in its office; it may be a *Noun*, a *Word*, a *Phrase*, or a *Sentence* used for a *Noun*.

EXAMPLES.

- a. *A Noun*.—1. *Birds fly.*
 2. “*Knowledge is power.*”
 3. “*Truth crushed to earth, will rise again.*”

b. *A Pronoun*.—4. *We* come.

5. *They* are satisfied.

6. “*They* that seek me early, shall find me.

c. *A Phrase*.—7. “*To do good*, is the duty of all men.

8. “*His being a minister*, prevented his rising to civil power.”

d. *A Sentence*.—9. “*At what time he took orders*, doth not appear.”

10. “*That all men are created equal*, is a self-evident truth.”

OBS. A Subject of a Sentence having Adjuncts, is called a *Modified Subject*.

EXAMPLE.—“*The king of shadows* loves a shining mark.”

DEF. 37.—The *Predicate* of a Sentence is the Word or Words that express what is asserted of the subject.

OBS.—The Predicate consists of a *Verb*, with or without another *Verb*, a *Participle*, an *Adjective*, a *Noun*, a *Pronoun*, or a *Preposition*.

EXAMPLES.

a. *A Verb only*.—1. *Birds* fly.

2. *Quadrupeds* run.

3. “Here *sleeps* he now alone.”

b. *Two Verbs*.—4. *We* shall go.

5. *I* do remember.

6. “Ye shall not in the lofty pine
Disturb the sparrow’s nest.”

c. *A Verb and a Participle*.—7. *John* was injured.

8. *Willie* is reading.

9. “Thou art perched aloft on the beetling crag.”

d. *A Verb and an Adjective*.—10. *James* became poor.

11. *Warner* is sleepy.

12. “And the waves are white below.”

e. *A Verb and a Noun*.—13. *God* is love.

14. *We* are friends.

15. “The proper study of mankind is man.”

f. *A Verb and a Pronoun*.—16. *It* is *I*.

17. *Who* are you?

18. “*Thine* is the kingdom.”

g. *A Verb and a Preposition*.—19. Its idle hopes are o’er.

20. That business has been attended to.

REMARKS.—The Predicate is varied not only in *form*, but also in its functions.

1. It may assert an *act*—as, William *walks*.
2. It may assert *being*—as, God *exists*.
3. It may assert *quality*—as, Sugar *is sweet*.
4. It may assert *possession*—as, “*Thine is the kingdom.*”
5. It may assert *identity*—as, It *is I*.
6. It may assert *condition*—as, Its idle hopes *are o'er.*”
7. It may assert *change of condition*—as, “His palsied hand *waxed strong.*”

Obs. 1.—The term “*Predicate*” has two applications—a *Logical* and a *Grammatical*. The *Logical Predicate* includes the *Grammatical Predicate* and its *Object*. Thus, in the sentence,

“The king of shadows loves a shining mark,”

“*Loves a shining mark,*” is the *Logical Predicate* ;

“*Loves*” is the *Grammatical Predicate*.

Obs. 2.—In Sentences that have no Objects, the *Logical* and the *Grammatical Predicates* are identical. Thus, in the sentence,

“The oaks of the mountains fall,”

“*Fall*” is both the *Logical* and the *Grammatical Predicate*.

Obs. 3.—The *Modified Predicate* includes the *Grammatical Predicate* and its *Adjuncts*. Thus, in the sentence,

“Hollow winds are in the pines,”

“*Are in the pines*” is the *Modified Predicate* of “*winds.*”

“*Are*” is the *Grammatical Predicate.*”

REM.—The *Object* of a Sentence, being distinct from the *Grammatical Predicate*, is properly regarded as a distinct *Element* in the structure of such Sentences as contain Objects. Hence,

DEF. 38.—The *Object* of a Sentence is the *Word* or *Words* on which the act, expressed by the *Predicate*, terminates.

Obs.—The *Object* of a Sentence is a *Noun*, or a *Word*, a *Phrase*, or a *Sentence* used for a *Noun*.

EXAMPLES.

a. A *Noun*.—1. John saws *wood*. 2. Birds build *nests*.

3. “Shall joy light the face of the Indian?”

b. A *Pronoun*.—4. I have seen *him*. 5. *Whom* seekest thou?

6. “Oft the shepherd called thee to his flock.”

- c. A *Phrase*.—7. “I regret *his being absent*.”
 d. A *Sentence*.—8. “The fool hath said in his heart, *There is no God*.”
 9. “And God said, *Let there be light*.”

ADJUNCT ELEMENTS.

An *Adjunct Element* may be

A *Word*, | A *Phrase*, | A *Sentence*.

EXAMPLES.

- a. A *Word*.—1. We were walking *homeward*.
 2. We shall arrive *soon*.
 3. “*Darkly waves each giant bough*.”
 b. A *Phrase*.—1. We were walking *toward home*.
 2. We shall arrive *in a short time*.
 c. A *Sentence*.—1. Students, *who study*, will improve.
 2. Students will improve, *if they study*.”

REM.—Adjuncts are used to *limit* or *describe things*, or to *modify acts* or *qualities*. Hence,

Adjuncts are distinguished as $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{ADJECTIVE OR} \\ \text{ADVERBIAL.} \end{array} \right.$

Obs. 1.—*Adjective Adjuncts*, whether Words, Phrases, or Sentences, are such as answer to the questions, *What? What kind? Whose? How many?* etc They are attached, in construction, to *Nouns* and to *Pronouns*.

Obs. 2.—*Adverbial Adjuncts*—Words, Phrases, or Sentences—are such as answer to the questions, *How? Why? Where? Whence? Whether?* etc They are attached to *Verbs*, to *Adjectives*, and to *Adverbs*.

Obs. 3.—Words, Phrases, and Sentences, having no *Grammatical connection* with other Elements in a Sentence, often perform *Adjunct offices*, by *limiting* or *modifying* the application of other Elements. Such are properly called *Logical Adjuncts*.

EXAMPLES.

- a. *Words*.—1. Webster, the *Statesman*, is remotely related to Webster, the *Lexicographer*.
 2. Clay—*Cassius M.*—had more honorable benevolence than political sagacity.
 b. *Phrases*.—1. “*Napoleon having fallen*, there is no more cause for alarm.”

c. *Sentences.*—"It is possible that Anna will come."

REM.—The words "*Statesman*" and "*Lexicographer*" are used to distinguish the two "*Websters*;" "*Cassius M.*," to distinguish which "*Clay*" is spoken of; the Phrase "*Napoleon having fallen*," to tell why there is no more cause for alarm; and "*Anna will come*," is a Sentence used to tell what is meant by the word "*it*." Hence, we have *Grammatical Adjuncts* and *Logical Adjuncts*.

RECAPITULATION.

SENTENCE.	PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	Subject	{ Word .. { Noun. { Pronoun. { Phrase Substantive. { Sentence . . . Substantive.
		Predicate ..	{ A VERB with another Verb. { or without a Participle. { an Adjective. { a Noun. { a Pronoun. { a Preposition.
		Object	{ Word .. { Noun. { Pronoun. { Phrase Substantive. { Sentence . . . Substantive.
	ADJUNCT ELEMENTS.	Grammatical	{ Word .. { Adjective. { Adverb. { Phrase .. { Adjective. { Adverbial. { Sentence. { Adjective. { Adverbial.
Logical		{ Word . . . Substantive, inde- { Phrase .. pendent in con- { struction, yet, in { Sentence. logical office, Ad- { jective or Ad- { verbial.	

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS.

SENTENCES WITHOUT ADJUNCTS.

Birds fly.

FIRST MODEL.

(a.)

Quest. Of what is something here said?*Ans.* Something is said of "*Birds*."*What* is said of "*Birds*"?*A.* They *fly*.

These two Words thus placed, form what?

A. A *Sentence*, for they constitute "an assemblage of words, so arranged as to assert an entire proposition."

(b.)

*Birds fly.**Quest.* In this Sentence, for what is the Word "*Birds*" used?*Ans.* To tell *what* "*fly*."*For what* is the Word "*fly*" used?*A.* To tell *what* "*Birds*" *do*.

(c.)

Birds fly."Every Sentence must have a *Subject* and a *Predicate*."*Quest.* In this Sentence, what is the *Subject*?*Ans.* "*Birds*"—for it "is that of which something is asserted."*What* is the *Predicate*?*A.* "*Fly*"—for it "is the word that expresses what is asserted of the *Subject*."

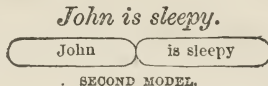
✍ Thus, analyze the following additional

EXAMPLES.

- | | | |
|--------------------------------------|--|-----------------------------|
| 1. Fishes swim. | | 4. Mary is reading. |
| 2. Horses gallop. | | 5. Winter has come. |
| 3. Lightning flashes. | | 6. Resources are developed. |
| 7. Lessons should have been studied. | | |

REM.—In the last example, the four words “should have been studied,” constitute the Predicate of “lessons.”

REM. 2.—The Pupil will notice that, when the Predicate consists of more than one word, the *last word* makes the *Principal Assertion*; the other words perform subordinate offices. Thus, in Example 7, “Should” denotes *obligation*; “Should have” denote *obligation and time*; “Should have been” denote *obligation, time, and voice*. These are subordinate to the principal assertion expressed by the word “studied”



ANALYSIS.

Subject.....“John.”
Predicate.....“is sleepy.”

REM.—In a limited sense, a Verb may be said to qualify or describe its subject.

EXAMPLES.—1. *John sleeps*

Here, “*sleeps*” describes a condition of “John.”

2. *John is sleeping.*

Here, “*is sleeping*” asserts a condition of “John.”

3. *John is sleepy.*

In this Sentence, “*is sleepy*” asserts a condition of John as definitely as do the Words, “*is sleeping*,” and the genius of the language requires the Word “sleeping” to be added to the Verb “is,” in order to express the fact intended; so the other fact concerning “John” requires the Word “sleepy” to be added to the Verb “is.” The Sentence is not, *sleeping John is—i. e., exists*; nor is the other, *sleepy John is—i. e., exists*; but “*John is sleeping*,” and “*John is sleepy*.” “Sleeping” is a Participle, in predicate with “is.” “Sleepy” is an Adjective, in predicate with “is.”

☞ Let the Pupil, in like manner, construe and place in Diagrams the following additional

EXAMPLES.

- | | | |
|--|--|--|
| <p>1. William is diligent.</p> <p>2. James was weary.</p> <p>3. Flowers are beautiful.</p> <p>4. Mountains are elevated.</p> | | <p>5. Velvet feels smooth.</p> <p>6. Robert has become poor.</p> <p>7. I felt languid.</p> <p>8. Soldiers waxed valiant.</p> <p>9. “His palsied hand wax'd strong.”—<i>Wilson</i>.</p> <p>10. “All earth-born cares are wrong.”—<i>Anon</i>.</p> |
|--|--|--|

God is love.

THIRD MODEL.

A *Sentence* See Definition.

ANALYSIS.

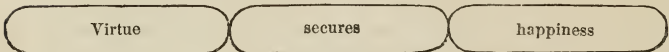
The *Subject*—"God" See Definition.

The *Predicate*—"Is love" See Definition.

NOTE.—"God," is the name of a Being—"Love," is the name of an *attribute* of that Being. "Is love," asserts a fact concerning God; and that fact can not well be expressed without these two Words thus combined.

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES.

- | | |
|------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. We are slaves. | 5. Ye are benefactors. |
| 2. Men are animals. | 6. I am [a] student. |
| 3. Thou art Peter. | 7. William and John are brothers. |
| 4. John is [a] friend. | 8. We are friends and neighbors. |

Virtue secures happiness.

FOURTH MODEL.

A *Sentence* See Definition.

ANALYSIS.

The *Subject*—"Virtue" See Definition.

The *Predicate*—"Secures" See Definition.

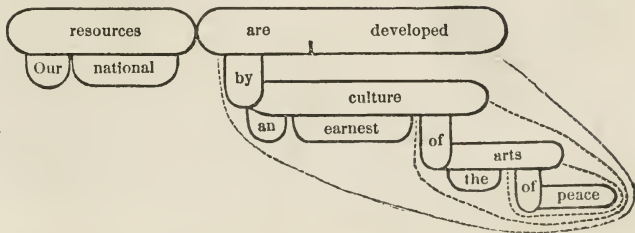
The *Object*—"Happiness" See Definition.

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. Birds build nests. | 8. Howard alleviated suffering. |
| 2. Clouds furnish rain. | 9. Columbus discovered America. |
| 3. Science promotes happiness. | 10. Fulton invented steamboats. |
| 4. Sin produces misery. | 11. David enlarged Jerusalem. |
| 5. Conscience demands obedience. | 12. Cæsar conquered Gaul. |
| 6. Napoleon obtained renown. | 13. John preached repentance. |
| 7. Washington secured admiration. | 14. Master taught school. |
| | 15. Students need instruction. |
| | 16. Railroads facilitate travel. |

SENTENCES WITH ADJUNCTS.

"Our national resources are developed by an earnest culture of the arts of peace."



FIFTH MODEL.

(a.)

Quest. Concerning what is an assertion here made?

Ans. Concerning "resources."

What is asserted of "resources"?

A. Resources "are developed."

What resources are developed?

A. "National" resources.

What national resources?

A. "Our" national resources.

How are our national resources developed?

A. "By an earnest culture of the arts of peace."

By what culture?

A. By "earnest" culture.

What earnest culture?

A. "An" earnest culture.

What special culture?

A. Culture "of the arts of peace."

Of what arts?

A. "The" arts "of peace."

(b.)

Quest. In the above Sentence, what is the use of “our”?

Ans. To define some particular *national resources*.

What is the use of “national”?

A. To tell *what* resources.

What is the use of “resources”?

A. To tell *what* are developed.

What is the use of “are developed”?

A. To tell what *is said* of resources.

What is the use of “by an earnest culture of the arts of peace”?

A. To tell *how* resources are developed.

(c.)

Ques. What is the *Modified Subject*?

Ans. “Our national resources.”

What is the *Modified Predicate*?

A. “Are developed by an earnest culture of the arts of peace.”

What are the principal Elements of this Sentence?

A. “*Resources are developed.*” They “express the unqualified assertion.”

What is the *Subject*?

A. “*Resources.*” It is the name of “that of which something is asserted.”

What is the *Predicate*?

A. “*Are developed.*” Those words “express what is affirmed of the Subject.”

What are the *Adjunct Elements* of the Sentence?

A. “Our” and “National” are Word Adjuncts of “Resources;” and “by an earnest culture of the arts of peace” is a Phrase Adjunct of “are developed.”

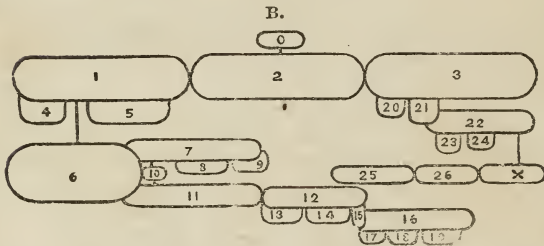
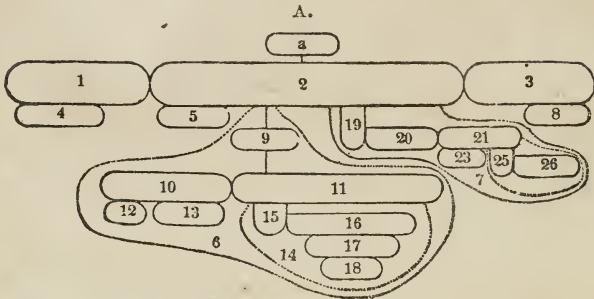
QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

- PAGE
15. What is *Language*? See Def. 1.
 X What language is *Natural*?—what, *Artificial*? } See Obs. 1.
 Artificial language is how distinguished?
 What is *Spoken Language*? See Def. 2.
 What is *Written Language*? See Def. 3.
 What is *Grammar*? See Def. 4.
16. What is *English Grammar*? See Def. 5.
 What is a *Letter*?—a *Word*?—a *Phrase*? See Def. 6, 7, 8.
 What is a *Sentence*? See Def. 9.
17. By their uses, how are *Words classified*?
 What is a *Noun*?—a *Pronoun*?—an *Adjective*? .. See Def. 10, 11, 12.
18. What is a *Verb*?—an *Adverb*?—a *Preposition*? .. See Def. 13, 14, 15.
 What is a *Conjunction*?—an *Exclamation*?—a } . See Def. 16, 17, 18.
 X *Word of Euphony*? }
19. By their offices, how are *Phrases classified*?
 What is a *Substantive Phrase*?—an *Adjective Phrase*? . See Def. 19, 20.
20. What is an *Adverbial Phrase*?—an *Independent Phrase*? .. Def. 21, 22.
 By their forms, how are *Phrases classified*?
 What is a *Prepositional Phrase*?—an *Infinitive Phrase*? ... Def. 23, 24.
 What is a *Participial Phrase*?—an *Independent Phrase*? ... Def. 25, 26.
21. What are the *Distinct Elements* of *Phrases*?
 X What are *Principal Elements* of *Phrases*? See Def. 27.
 X What are *Adjunct Elements* of *Phrases*? See Def. 28.
 The *Principal Elements* consist of what?
 What is the *Leader* of a *Phrase*?—it may consist of what? .. Def. 29.
22. What is the *Subsequent* of a *Phrase*?—it may consist of what? .. Def. 31.
24. What are the *Elements of a Sentence*?—how distinguished? .. Def. 32.
 What are *Principal Elements*?—what, *Adjunct Ele-* } See Def. 33, 34.
ments? }
25. What are called *Attendant Elements*? See Def. 35.
 The *Principal Elements* of a *Sentence* consist of what?
 What is the *Subject* of a *Sentence*?—it may consist of what? .. Def. 36.
26. What is the *Predicate*?—it may consist of what? See Def. 37.
27. What is the *Logical Predicate* of a *Sentence*? See Obs. 1.
 What is the *Modified Predicate* of a *Sentence*? See Obs. 3.
 What is the *Object*?—it may consist of what? See Def. 38.
28. *Adjunct Elements* may consist of what?
 What are *Logical Adjuncts*?

DIAGRAMS.

REM.—The *office* of an Element in a Sentence determines its *position* in the Diagram, according to the following

GENERAL RULES.



RULE 1.—The *Principal Elements* of a Sentence are placed uppermost, and on the same horizontal line;—as (1), (2), (3), Diagrams A and B.

RULE 2.—The *Subject* of a Sentence takes the first place;—as, (1) and (10), Diagrams A, and (1), (6), and (25) B.

RULE 3.—The *Predicate* of a Sentence is placed to the right of the Subject—attached;—as, (2), and (11), A, and (2), (7), (11), and (26), B.

RULE 4.—The *Object* of a Sentence is placed to the right of the Predicate—attached;—as (3), A, and (3), (12), and (×), B.

RULE 5.—An *Adjunct* of a Sentence is placed beneath the Word which it limits or modifies—attached; as, (4), (5), (6), (7), (12), (13), (14), (17), (18), (23), A, and (4), (5), (8), (9), (17), (18), (19), (20), (23), (24), B.

RULE 6.—If the Adjunct is a *Phrase*, its Leader is attached to the Word which it limits; as, (15), (19), (25), A, and (15), (21), B.

RULE 7.—If the Adjunct is a *Sentence*, it is attached by a line to the Word which the Adjunct Sentence limits; as, the Adjunct Sentence within the dotted line (6), is attached by the line from (2) to (9), A, and (6 to 19 inclusive) is attached to (1), B.

RULE 9.—A *Logical Adjunct* is placed beneath the Word which it describes, but not attached. [See page 39.]

RULE 9.—The *Subsequent* of a Phrase is placed to the right of its Leader—attached; as, (20 and 21) to the right of (19)—(26) to the right of (25)—(16) of (15), A, and (22) of (21)—(16) of (15), B.

RULE 10.—A *Conjunction* used to introduce a Sentence is placed above the Predicate of the Sentence which it introduces; as, (*a*), used to introduce the Sentence (1, 2, 3), A, and (9), introducing the Adjunct Sentence (10, 11), A, and (*o*), introducing the Sentence (1, 2, 3), B.

RULE 11.—A *Conjunction* used to connect Words, Phrases, or Sentences, similar in construction, is placed between the Elements connected; as, (10), connecting (11) to (7), B. [See also Diagram, page 41.]

RULE 12.—A *Relative Pronoun* or a *Possessive Adjective* used to introduce an *Adjunct Sentence*, is attached to the “antecedent” by a line; as (6) attached to (1) and (X) attached to (22), B.

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

REMARK.—Some Sentences assert the *being, condition, or state* of a person or of a thing—or an act which does not pass over to an Object.

Others assert acts which terminate on Objects.

Some Sentences assert but one fact—others assert more than one.

Some assert an *Independent* or a *Principal Proposition*—others a *Secondary* or a *Qualifying Proposition*. Hence,

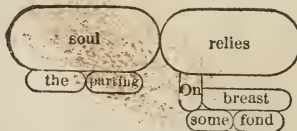
Sentences are distinguished as

Intransitive or *Transitive*,
Simple or *Compound*,
Principal or *Auxiliary*.

DEF. 43.—An *Intransitive Sentence* is a Sentence that asserts *condition, being, or state*—or an *act* which does not terminate on an Object.

EXAMPLES.

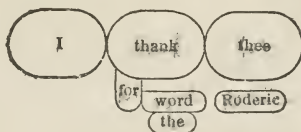
- | | | |
|--|--|--|
| 1. William sleeps.
2. Errors abound.
3. Mary is cheerful. | | 4. God is love.
5. Mountains are elevated.
6. Fishes swim. |
| 7. “On some fond breast the parting soul relies.”
8. “Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight.”
9. “Satyrs and sylvan boys were seen
Peeping from forth their valleys green.” | | |



Obs.—An *Intransitive Sentence* contains one or more *Subjects* and *Predicates*—but no *Object*.

DEF. 44.—A *Transitive Sentence* is a Sentence that asserts an *act* which terminates on an *Object*.

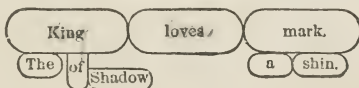
- EXAMPLES.—1. Virtue secures happiness.
 2. Industry promotes health and wealth.
 3. "I thank thee, Roderick, for the word."
 4. "The king of shadows loves a shining mark."
 5. "And the eye and the heart hailed its beautiful form."



OBS.—A Transitive Sentence has at least one *Subject*, one *Predicate*, and one *Object*.

DEF. 45.—A *Simple Sentence* is a Sentence that asserts but one proposition.

- EXAMPLES.—1. William sleeps.
 2. Mary is cheerful.
 3. Virtue secures happiness.
 4. "The king of shadows loves a shining mark."



OBS.—A Simple Sentence can have but one *Subject*, one *Predicate*, and—when Transitive—one *Object*.

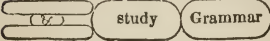
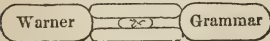
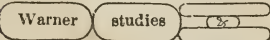
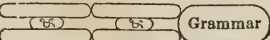
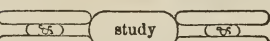
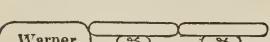
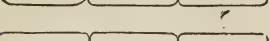
DEF. 46.—A *Compound Sentence* is a Sentence that asserts more than one proposition.

- EXAMPLES.—1. *Anna* and *Mary* study Latin.
 2. Temperance *elevates* and *ennobles* man.
 3. Robert studies *Grammar* and *Arithmetic*.
 4. "Slowly and sadly they climb the distant mountain,
 And read their doom in the setting sun."

OBS.—A Compound Sentence has more than one *Subject* or *Predicate* or *Object*.



DEF. 46 (b).—In a Compound Sentence, the Principal Elements which are compounded are called *Clauses*.

Obs.—The Compound Clauses may be,

- | | |
|--|---|
|  | 1. The <i>Subjects only</i> —Warner and Arthur study Grammar. |
|  | 2. The <i>Predicates only</i> —Warner studies and recites Grammar. |
|  | 3. The <i>Objects only</i> —Warner studies Grammar and Arithmetic. |
|  | 4. The <i>Subjects and the Predicates</i> —Warner and Arthur study and recite Grammar. |
|  | 5. The <i>Subjects and the Objects</i> —Warner and Arthur study Grammar and Arithmetic. |
|  | 6. The <i>Predicates and the Objects</i> —Warner studies and recites Grammar and Arithmetic. |
|  | 7. The <i>Subjects, the Predicates, and the Objects</i> —Warner and Arthur study and recite Grammar and Arithmetic. |

Obs.—A Compound Sentence may have more than two clauses.

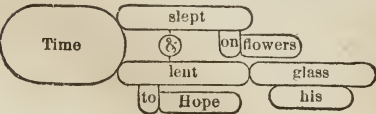
EXAMPLES.

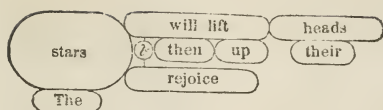
		Friendship, Love, and Truth abound.
		“Oxygen, Carbon, Hydrogen, and Nitrogen constitute the chief elements of organized matter.”

REM.—Sentences which have Compound Predicates often have Objects applicable to only a part of them. Hence,

DEF. 46 (c).—A *Compound Sentence*, having one or more Transitive, and one or more Intransitive Predicates, is called a *Mixed Sentence*.

EXAMPLES.

	1. “Time slept on flowers, and lent his glass to Hope.”
	REM.—“Slept” is Intransitive; “lent” is Transitive.



2. The stars will then lift up their heads and rejoice.

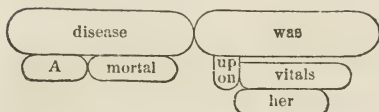
REM — "Will lift" is Transitive; "rejoice" is Intransitive.

3. "I will never *prize* for public honors,
Nor *disturb* my quiet with the affairs of state."

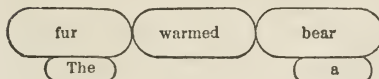
4. "Who can *observe* the careful ant,
And not *provide* for future want."

DEF. 47.—A *Principal Sentence* asserts an independent or a principal proposition.

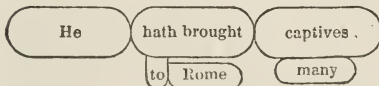
EXAMPLES.



1. A mortal DISEASE WAS upon her vitals.



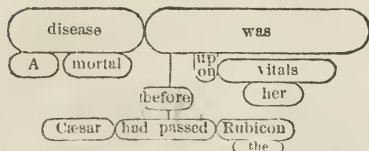
2. "The FUR WARMED a BEAR."



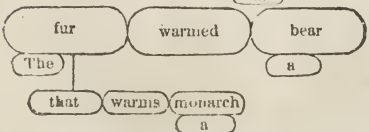
3. "HE HATH BROUGHT many CAPTIVES to Rome."

DEF. 48.—An *Auxiliary Sentence* is a Sentence that is used as an *Element* in the structure of another Sentence or of a Phrase.

EXAMPLES.

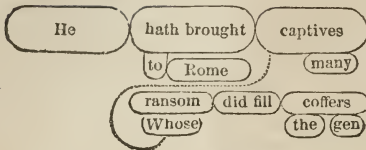


1. "A mortal DISEASE WAS upon her vitals *before Caesar had passed the Rubicon.*"



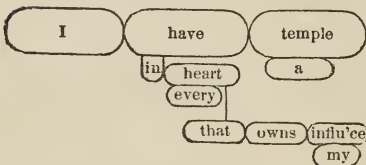
2. "The FUR *that warms a monarch,* WARMED a BEAR."

REMARK.—"That warms a monarch" is an Adjunct of "fur."



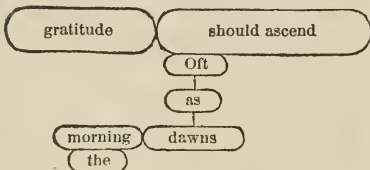
3. "He HATH BROUGHT many CAPTIVES to Rome,
Whose ransom did the general coffers fill."

4. "SWEET WAS the SOUND, *when oft*, at evening's close,
Up yonder hill the village *murmur rose*."
5. "The bounding STEED *you pompously bestride*,
SHARES with his lord the PLEASURE and the PRIDE."



6. "I HAVE a TEMPLE in every heart *that owns my influence*."

REMARK. — "That owns my influence" describes "heart."



7. "Oft as the *morning dawns* SHOULD GRATITUDE ASCEND."

REMARK. — "Oft" modifies "should ascend." "As the morning dawns" limits "oft."

8. "To him *that wishes for me*, I AM always PRESENT."
9. "These lofty TREES WAVE not less proudly,
That their ancestors moulder beneath them."

OBS.—A Principal Sentence and its Auxiliary Sentences constitute a *Complex Sentence*. [See EXAMPLES 1, 2, above.]

REM.—An Auxiliary Sentence is an Adjunct of a Word, a Phrase, or a Sentence; or it is used as a substitute for a Noun. Hence,

Auxiliary Sentences are distinguished as

Substantive,
Adjective, and
Adverbial.

DEF. 49.—A *Substantive Sentence* is used as the *Subject* or the *Object* of a Sentence; or as the *Object* of a Phrase.

EXAMPLES.

That
men commit faults can be denied
good some's not

1. "That good men sometimes commit faults, can not be denied."

learning shows mortals know little
Much how

2. Much learning shows how little mortals know.

He refused
to tell causes mov' him
(what)

3. He refused to tell what causes moved him.

4. "That all men are created equal, is a self-evident truth."

5. "Yet Brutus says he was ambitious."

DEF. 50.—An *Adjective Sentence* is a Sentence that is used as an Adjunct of a Substantive.

EXAMPLES.

He loveth soul
that getteth wisdom his own

1. "HE that getteth wisdom LOVETH his own SOUL."

I will honor Them
that honor me

2. THEM that honor me, I-WILL HONOR."

John is able
not to tell ... at
he knows wh...

3. JOHN IS NOT ABLE to tell what he knows.

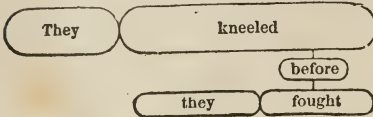
4. "That life is long which answers life's great end."

5. "The man of wealth and pride
Takes up a space that many poor supplied"

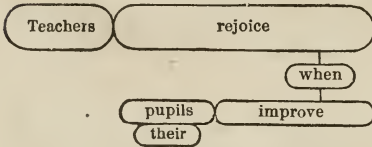
6. "Here I come to tell what I do know."

DEF. 51.—An *Adverbial Sentence* is a Sentence that is used as an Adjunct of a *Verb*, a *Participle*, an *Adjective*, or another *Adverb*.

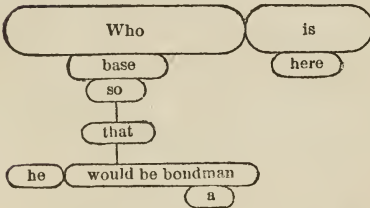
EXAMPLES.



1. "They kneeled *before they fought.*"



2. "Teachers rejoice *when their pupils improve.*"



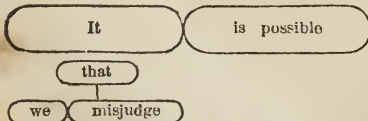
3. "Who is here so base *that he would be a bondman?*"

REMARK.—"Base" describes "who;" "so" modifies "base;" "that he would be a bondmen" limits "so."

4. "Where wealth and freedom reign, contentment fails."
5. "How dear to my heart are the scenes of my childhood
When fond recollection presents them to view."
6. "These lofty trees wave not less proudly
That their ancestors moulder beneath them."

Obs.—A Sentence is sometimes a *Logical Adjunct* of some Word in a Principal Sentence.

EXAMPLES.




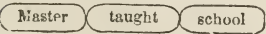
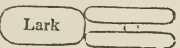

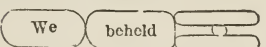
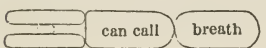
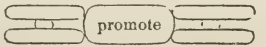
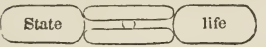
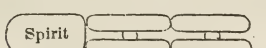
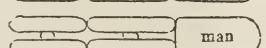
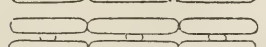
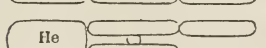
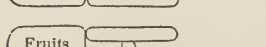
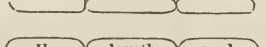
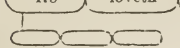
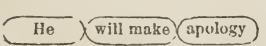
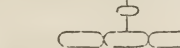
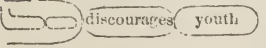

1. It is possible *that we misjudge.*

See page 28, Obs. 3.

NOTE.—"That we misjudge" is a Sentence, used to limit the application of the Word "it." Hence, the *Sentence* is an Adjunct of the Word. It is called a *Logical Adjunct* because there is no *Grammatical connection* between the two Sentences.

RECAPITULATION OF DIAGRAMS.

I. FOR SENTENCES.

A		... a Simple Sentence—Intransitive. EXAMPLE.—“ <i>Landscape fades.</i> ”
B		... a Simple Sentence—Transitive. EX.—“ <i>Master taught school.</i> ”
C		a Compound Sentence—Intransitive. EX.—“ <i>Lark ascends and sings.</i> ”
D		a Compound Sentence—Intransitive. EX.—“ <i>Wealth and freedom reign.</i> ”
E		a Compound Sentence—Transitive. EX.—“ <i>We beheld moon and stars.</i> ”
F		a Compound Sentence—Transitive. EX.—“ <i>Urn or bust can call breath.</i> ”
G		a Compound Sentence—Transitive. EX.—“ <i>Liberty and union promote peace and safety.</i> ”
H		a Compound Sentence—Transitive. EX.—“ <i>State conforms and models life.</i> ”
I		a Compound Sentence—Transitive. EX.—“ <i>Spirit unfurls light and wheels course.</i> ”
J		a Compound Sentence—Transitive. EX.—“ <i>Wisdom and virtue elevate and ennoble man.</i> ”
K		a Compound Sentence—Transitive. EX.—“ <i>Youth and beauty tread ring and shout raptures.</i> ”
L		... a Compound Sentence—Mixed. EX.—“ <i>He breathes fragrance and sleeps.</i> ”
M		... a Compound Sentence—Mixed. EX.—“ <i>Fruits ripen and yield repasts.</i> ”
COMPLEX SENTENCES.		
N	 the Principal Sentence. EX.—“ <i>He loveth soul.</i> ”
N-n		... Auxiliary Sentence—Adjective. EX.—“ <i>That getteth wisdom.</i> ”
O	 the Principal Sentence. EX.—“ <i>He will make apology.</i> ”
O-o		... Auxiliary Sentence—Adverb. EX.—“ <i>If John has injured you.</i> ”
P-p		. a Sentence having a Phrase for its Subject. EX.—“ <i>Finding fault discourages youth.</i> ”
Q		... a Sentence having a Sentence for its Object. EX.—“ <i>Man exclaims, they come.</i> ”

2. PHRASES.

Leader—Subsequent.

- | | | |
|------------------|--|---|
| R | |a Prepositional Phrase—Simple
EXAMPLE.—“ <i>Of Java.</i> ” |
| R 2 | |a Propositional Phrase—Compound.
EX.—“ <i>In peace and safety.</i> ” |
| S | | a Participial Phrase—Simple, Transitive.
EX.—“ <i>Gaining time.</i> ” |
| T | |an Infinitive Phrase—Intransitive.
EX.—“ <i>To dream.</i> ” |
| T 2 | |an Infinitive Phrase—Transitive.
EX.—“ <i>To give gifts.</i> ” |
| U | | ..an Independent Phrase.—Intransitive.
EX.—“ <i>Story being done.</i> ” |
| U 2 | |an Independent Phrase—Transitive.
EX.—“ <i>Boat having left wharf.</i> ” |
| COMPLEX PHRASES. | | |
| V | |a Participial Phrase the Object of a
Preposition.
EX.—“ <i>Of gaining time.</i> ” |
| W | | Principal Phrase Prepositional, or Infinitive. [itive.
Auxiliary Phrase Prepositional, or Infinitive.
EX.—“ <i>On bed of sea-flowers.</i> ” |
| X | | .a Participial Phrase, having a Sentence
for its Subsequent. |
| Y | | EX.—“ <i>Saying, we will reply.</i> ” |
| Z | | ...Adjunct Word—Adjective or Adverb.
...Compound Adjunct. |

REM.—1. With the exception of the last two, the above Diagrams are adapted to the *Principal Elements* of a Sentence or of a Phrase. In the exercises which follow, these Elements are variously modified by Adjunct Words, Phrases, and Sentences.

2. The whole Predicate—consisting of one, two, three, four, and sometimes five words—is placed in one Diagram, as exhibited on the following pages.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

- PAGE
 38 ~~X~~ Why are Sentences classified? See Remark.
 How are Sentences classified?
~~X~~ What is an *Intransitive Sentence*? See Def. 43.
~~X~~ May Intransitive Sentences be *either* Simple or Compound? See Obs.
 Make Intransitive Sentences. *Simple*.
 Make " " *Compound*.
 39 ~~X~~ What is a *Transitive Sentence*? See Def. 44.
 Make Transitive Sentences *Simple*.
 Make " " *Compound*.
~~X~~ What is a *Simple Sentence*? See Def. 45.
 Make Simple Sentences *Intransitive*.
 Make " " *Transitive*.
~~X~~ What is a *Compound Sentence*? See Def. 46.
 Make Compound Sentences *Intransitive*.
 Make " " *Transitive*.
 40 ~~X~~ What are *Clauses* of a Sentence? See Def. 46 (b).
 What Elements in a Sentence may be compounded? See Obs. (1-7).
 Make Sentences having Compound. *Subjects*.
 Make " " " *Predicates*.
 Make " " " *Objects*.
 How numerous may be the *Clauses* of a Sentence?
~~X~~ What is a *Mixed Sentence*? See Def. 46 (c).
 Make Mixed Sentences—1st Clause Transitive.
 Make " " 2d Clause Transitive.
 41 ~~X~~ What is a *Principal Sentence*? See Def. 47.
~~X~~ What is an *Auxiliary Sentence*? See Def. 48.
 42 ~~X~~ What is a *Complex Sentence*? See Obs.
 Make Compound Sentences.
 What are the *offices* of Auxiliary Sentences? See B
 By their *offices*, how are Auxiliary Sentences distinguished?
 43. What is a *Substantive Sentence*? See Def. 49.
 Make a Substantive Sentence that shall be the *Subject* of a
 Principal Sentence.
 Make a Substantive Sentence that shall be the *Object* of a
 Principal Sentence.
 What is an *Adjective Sentence*? See Def. 50.
 Make Adjective Sentences.
 44. What is an *Adverbial Sentence*? See Def. 51.
 Make Adverbial Sentences.

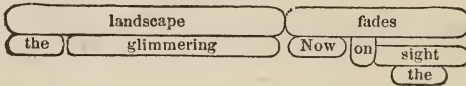
EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS.

REM.—1. In the following Exercises will be found Sentences of every grade—from the most simple to the most complex. The Teacher will find exercise for his judgment and discretion in assigning the Sentences to his pupils (for analysis) according to their several capacities.

2. The Teacher will find it interesting and profitable to his Pupils to assign to each at least one Sentence, to be placed in its appropriate Diagram—drawn on the black-board *ex tempore*, or on paper by appointment at a previous recitation.

SIMPLE SENTENCES—*Intransitive.*

1. “*Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight.*”



A Simple Sentence—Intransitive See Def. 43.

ANALYSIS.

- The *Modified Subject* “The glimmering landscape.”
- The *Grammatical Subject* “Landscape.”
- The *Modified Predicate* “Now fades on the sight.”
- The *Grammatical Predicate* “Fades.”

ADJUNCT ELEMENTS.

- Of the Subject*, { “The” a Word.
- { “Glimmering” a Word.
- Of the Predicate*, { “Now” a Word.
- { “On the sight” a Phrase.

CONSTRUCTION.

<i>Elements.</i>	<i>Office.</i>	<i>Class.</i>
Now,	tells <i>when</i> “landscape fades.”	Adjunct of “fades.”
Fades,	tells <i>what</i> “landscape” <i>does</i> .	Predicate of “landscape.”
The,	tells <i>what</i> “landscape.”	Adjunct of “landscape.”
Glimmering,	tells <i>what</i> “landscape.”	Adjunct of “landscape.”
Landscape,	tells <i>what</i> “fades.”	Subject of “fades.”
On the sight,	tells <i>where</i> “landscape <i>fades</i> .”	Adjunct of “fades.”

Other EXAMPLES applicable to the same Diagram.

2. The studious pupil | seldom fails in his recitation.
3. The arrogant pedant | was quickly banished from the company.
4. Such bright examples | seldom fail, ultimately, to please.
5. That bright meteor | flashed brilliantly athwart the heavens.
6. The young aspirant | never succeeded in his effort.
7. Our brightest students | are also foremost in their sports.

 Let each Pupil make a Sentence adapted to the same Diagram.

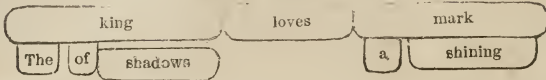
ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES.

Principal Elements similar—Adjuncts dissimilar.

8. "The big *tear* | then *started* from his eye."
9. "Morni's *face* | *brightened* with gladness."
10. "His aged *eyes* | *look* faintly through tears of joy."
11. "We | *came* to the halls of Selma."
12. "We | *sat* around the feast of shells."
13. "Fingat | *rose* in his place."
14. "The *sword* of Trenmor | *shook* by his side."
15. "The gray-haired *hero* | *moved* before."
16. "On the pathway of spirits
She wanders alone."
17. "The *song* of the wood-dove *has died* on our shore "
18. "And on the stranger's dim and dying eye
The soft, sweet *pictures* of his childhood *lie*."
19. "His *hair* *falls* round his blushing cheek, in the wreaths of
waving light."
20. "A *flood* of glory *bursts* from all the skies."
21. "The long, bright *days* of summer quickly *passed*."
22. "The dry *leaves* *whirled* in Autumn's rising blast."
23. "The garden *rose* *may* richly *bloom*,
In cultured soil and genial air,
To cloud the light of Fashion's room,
Or droop in Beauty's midnight hair."
24. "On Horeb's rock the *prophet* *stood*,—
25. The *Lord* before him *passed* ;
26. A *hurricane*, in angry mood,
Swept by him, strong and fast ;
27. The *forest* *fell* before its force ;
28. The *rocks* *were* *shivered* in its course ;
29. *God* was not in the blast." (See p. 258, Obs. 3)

SIMPLE SENTENCES.—*Transitive.*

1.—“*The king of shadows loves a shining mark.*”



A Simple Sentence—Transitive. See Def. 44.

ANALYSIS.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	{	The <i>Subject</i> “King.”	
		The <i>Predicate</i> “Loves.”	
		The <i>Object</i> “Mark.”	
ADJUNCT ELEMENTS.	{	<i>Of the Subject,</i>	{ “The” a Word.
		<i>Of the Predicate,</i>	{ “Of shadows” a Phrase.
		<i>Of the Object,</i>	{ “A” a Word.
			{ “Shining” a Word.

<i>Elements.</i>	<i>Office.</i>	<i>Class.</i>
The,	to tell <i>what</i> “king.”	Adjunct of “king.”
King,	to tell <i>who</i> “loves mark.”	Subject of “loves.”
Of shadows,	to tell <i>what</i> “king.”	Adjunct of “king.”
Loves,	to tell <i>what</i> the king does.	Predicate of “king.”
A,	to tell <i>what</i> “mark.”	Adjunct of “mark.”
Shining,	to tell <i>what</i> “mark.”	Adjunct of “mark.”
Mark,	to tell <i>what</i> the king “loves.”	Object of “loves.”

Other EXAMPLES applicable to the same Diagram.

2. The *science* of Geology *illustrates* many astonishing facts.
3. A *love* for study *secures* our intellectual *improvement*.
4. The *habit* of intemperance *produces* much lasting *misery*.
5. A *desire* for improvement *should possess* all our *hearts*.
6. The *use* of tobacco *degrades* many good *men*.
7. A *house* on fire *presents* a melancholy *spectacle*.
8. A *man* of refinement *will adopt* no disgusting *habits*.

Let each Pupil make a Sentence for the same Diagram.

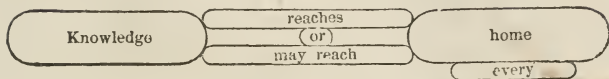
Let the Pupil read only the Principal Elements of the above Sentences. Thus,

Love secures improvement,

Then let him add the Adjuncts to each word.

COMPOUND SENTENCES.—*Transitive.*

1. “*Knowledge reaches or may reach every home.*”



ANALYSIS.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	{	The <i>Subject</i> “Knowledge.”
		The <i>1st Predicate</i> “Reaches.”
		The <i>2d Predicate</i> “May reach.”
		The <i>Object</i> “Home.”
ADJUNCT ELEMENTS.	{	<i>Of the Subject</i> _____
		<i>Of the Predicate</i> _____
		<i>Of the Object</i> “Every.”

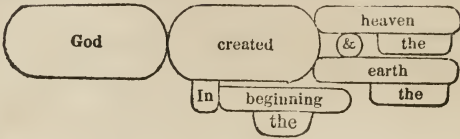
ADDITIONAL SENTENCES,

Having the PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS similar in construction.

2. “By thus acting, *we cherish and improve both.*”
3. “Whose potent arm *perpetuates existence or destroys.*”
4. “For which *we shunned and hated thee before.*”
5. “*Hope*, like a cordial, innocent though strong,
Man’s heart at once *inspires and serenest.*”
6. “Hence every *state*, to one loved blessing prone,
Conforms and models life to that alone.”
7. “Mighty Alfred’s piercing soul
Pervades and regulates the whole.”
8. “*Temperance fortifies and purifies the heart.*”
9. “Bright *angels viewed* with wondering eyes,
And *hailed* the incarnate God.”
10. “Who does not receive and *entertain* a polite man with still greater
cheerfulness?”
11. “And oft that blessed *fancy cheers*,
And *bears* my heart above.”
12. “That *voice* of more than Roman eloquence, *urged* and sustained
the *Declaration* of Independence.”
13. “The pewter *plate* on* the dresser, *caught* and *reflected* the flame.”

* See Key, pages 21 and 79.

1. "In the beginning, God created the heaven and the earth."



ANALYSIS.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	{	The <i>Subject</i> "God."
		The <i>Predicate</i> "Created."
		The <i>Objects</i> { "Heaven" and "Earth."
ADJUNCT ELEMENTS.	{	<i>Of the Subject</i> _____
		<i>Of the Predicate</i> "In the beginning."
		<i>Of the 1st Object</i> "The."
		<i>Of the 2d Object</i> "The."

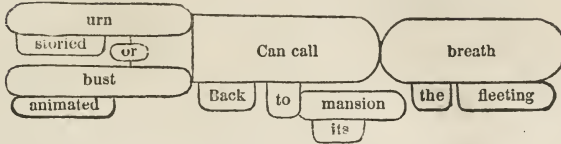
CONSTRUCTION.

<i>Elements.</i>	<i>Office.</i>	<i>Class.</i>
"In the beginning,"	tells <i>when</i> God "created."	Adjunct of "created."
"God,"	tells <i>who</i> "created heaven and earth."	} Subject of "created."
"Created,"	tells <i>what</i> "God" did.	
The,	tells <i>what</i> "heaven."	Adjunct of "heaven."
Heaven,	tells <i>what</i> "God created."	Object of "created."
And,	joins "heaven and earth."	Conjunction.
The,	tells <i>what</i> "earth."	Adjunct of "earth."
Earth,	tells <i>what</i> "God created."	Object of "created."

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES, for the same Diagram

2. William loves his study and his play with equal attachment.
3. God, in the creation, has displayed his wisdom and his power.
4. Men gather the tares and the wheat with equal care.
5. We, at all times, seek our honor and our happiness.
6. Students require of the teacher much instruction and some patience.
7. He educated his daughter and his son at great expense.

1. "Can storied urn or animated bust
Back to its mansion call the fleeting breath?"



ANALYSIS.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS. { 1st Subject "Urn."
2d Subject "Bust."
The Predicate "Can call."
The Object "Breath."

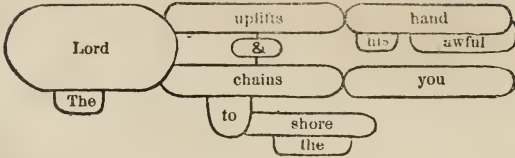
ADJUNCT ELEMENTS. { Of the 1st Subject "Storied."
Of the 2d Subject "Animated."
Of the Predicate { "Back."
"To its mansion."
Of the Object { "The."
"Fleeting."

ADDITIONAL SENTENCES,

In which the PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS are similar.

2. "Illuminated *reason* and regulated *liberty* shall once more exhibit *man* in the image of his Maker."
3. "The hunter's *trail* and the dark *encampments* startled the wild *beasts* from their lairs."
4. "Their *names*, their *years*, spelled by the unlettered muse,
The *place* of fame and *elegy* supply."
5. "Thy praise
The widows' sighs and orphans' tears embalm."
6. "Hill and valley echo back their songs."
7. "Then Strife and Faction rule the day,"
8. "And Pride and Avarice throng the way."
9. "Loose Revelry and Riot bold,
In freighted streets their orgies hold."
10. "Here Art and Commerce, with auspicious reign,
Once breathed sweet influence on the happy plain."

1. "The Lord uplifts his awful hand,
And chains you to the shore."



ANALYSIS.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS. { The Subject..... "Lord."
 The 1st Predicate.... "Uplifts."
 The 2d Predicate "Chains."
 The 1st Object..... "Hand."
 The 2d Object..... "You."

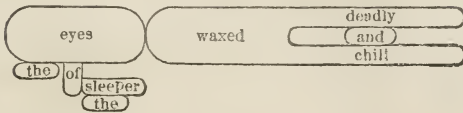
ADJUNCT ELEMENTS. { Of the Subject..... "The."
 Of the 1st Predicate _____
 Of the 2d Predicate..... "To the shore."
 Of the 1st Object { "His."
 "Awful."
 Of the 2d Object..... _____

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES,

In which the PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS are similar.

2. "He heard the King's command,
And saw that writing's truth."
3. "For misery stole me at my birth,
And cast me, helpless, on the wild."
4. "That the page unfolds,
And spreads us to the gaze of God and men."
5. "Now twilight lets her curtain down,
And pins it with a star."
6. "They fulfilled the great law of labor in the letter, but broke it
in the spirit."
7. "Then weave the chaplet of flowers, and strew the beauties of
Nature about the grave."
8. "He marks, and in heaven's register enrolls
The rise and progress of each option there."

1. "And the eyes of the sleeper waxed deadly and chill."



ANALYSIS.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS. { The *Subject* "Eyes."
 { The *Predicate* . . "Waxed deadly and chill."
 ADJUNCT ELEMENTS. { *Of the Subject* { "The" a Word.
 { *Of the Predicate* { "Of the sleeper" . a Phrase.

NOTE.—The words "deadly" and "chill" describe "eyes," and are therefore ADJECTIVES; but they describe by *making* (in connection with "waxed") an *assertion*. Hence they are ADJECTIVES IN PREDICATE—they constitute a part of the Predicate.

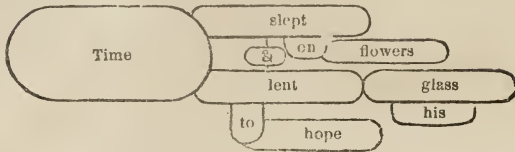
ADDITIONAL SENTENCES,

Having Adjectives or Participles in Predicate.

2. "Age is dark and unlovely."
3. "Bloodless are these limbs and cold."
4. "Now, therefore, be not grieved nor angry with yourselves."
5. "I am perplexed and confounded."
6. "They became agitated and restless."
7. "Rude am I in speech, and little blest
With the set phrase of peace."
8. "What bark is plunging mid the billowy strife,
And dashing madly on to fearful doom."
9. "The wares of the merchant are spread abroad in the shops, or
stored in the high-piled warehouses"
10. "How finely diversified, and how multiplied into many thousand distinct exercises, is the attention of God!"
11. "Contentment is serious but not grave."
12. "The promises of Hope are sweeter than roses in the bud, and
far more flattering to expectation"
13. "For cold and stiff and still are they
Who wrought thy walls annoy."*

* Wrought annoyance to thy walls.

1. "Time slept on flowers and lent his glass to hope."



ANALYSIS.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	{	The <i>Subject</i> "Time."
		The <i>Predicates</i> { "Slept" Intransitive. and "Lent" Transitive.
		The <i>Object</i> "Glass."
ADJUNCT ELEMENTS.	{	<i>Of the Subject</i> ———
		<i>Of the 1st Predicate</i> . "On flowers" . a Phrase.
		<i>Of the 2d Predicate</i> . "To hope" . . . a Phrase.
		<i>Of the Object</i> "His" a Word.

ADDITIONAL SENTENCES,

Adapted to the same Diagram.

2. We sigh for change, and spend our lives for naught.
3. William goes to school, and pursues his study with zeal.
4. James stays at home, and spends his time at play.
5. We shall pass from earth, and yield our homes to others.
6. Fruits ripen in Autumn, and yield us rich repasts.

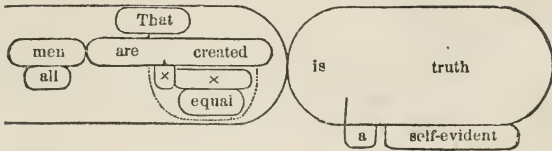
Other MIXED SENTENCES, with variable Adjuncts.

7. "For Spring shall return, and a lover bestow."
8. "The waves mount up and wash the face of heaven."
9. "In silence majestic they twinkle on high,
And draw admiration from every eye."
10. "Its little joys go out one by one,
And leave poor man, at length, in perfect night."
11. "But the black blast blows hard,
And puffs them wide of hope."
12. "Wreaths of smoke ascend through the trees,
And betray the half-hidden cottage."

COMPLEX SENTENCES.

1. THE AUXILIARY SENTENCES.—SUBSTANTIVE.

1. "That all men are created equal is a self-evident truth."



ANALYSIS.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS. { The *Subject*.. { "That all men are created equal." } a Sentence.
 { The *Predicate*.. { "Is" } a Verb and
 { "Truth"... } a Noun.

ADJUNCT ELEMENTS. { *Of the Subject* ————
 { *Of the Predicate*.. { "A." }
 { "Self-evident." }

ANALYSIS of the Auxiliary Sentence.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS. { The *Subject* "Men."
 { The *Predicate* . . . "Are created."

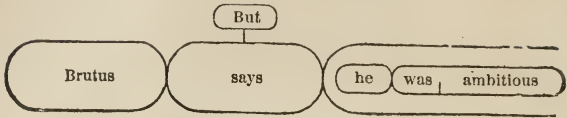
ADJUNCT ELEMENTS. { *Of the Subject* "All" . . . a Word.
 { *Of the Predicate* . . "Equal."*

ADDITIONAL COMPLEX SENTENCES,

Having SUBSTANTIVE SENTENCES for their SUBJECTS.

2. " 'I can not,' has never accomplished anything."
3. " 'I will try,' has done wonders."
4. "That friendship is a sacred trust,
 That friends should be sincere and just,
 That constancy befits them,
 Are observations on the case,
 That savors much of commonplace."

* A word substituted for the Adverbial Phrase, "[with] equal [rights]."

1. "But Brutus says *he was ambitious.*"

ANALYSIS.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{The } \textit{Subject} \dots\dots \text{ "Brutus" } \dots\dots \text{ a Word.} \\ \text{The } \textit{Predicate} \dots\dots \text{ "Says" } \dots\dots \text{ a Word.} \\ \text{The } \textit{Object} \dots\dots \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{ "He was am-} \\ \text{ bitious" } \dots \end{array} \right\} \text{ a Sentence.} \end{array} \right.$	

ADJUNCT ELEMENTS.—None.

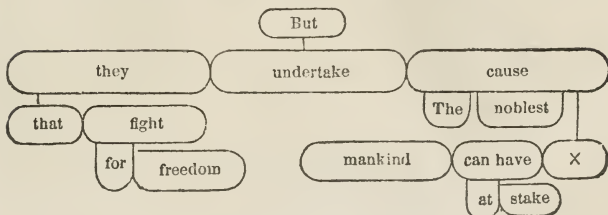
ADDITIONAL COMPLEX SENTENCES,

Having SUBSTANTIVE SENTENCES for their OBJECTS.

2. "Go to the raging sea, and say, '*Be still.*'"
3. "But tell not Misery's son *that life is fair.*"
4. "'*And this to me?*' he said."
5. "Cæsar cried, '*Help me, Cassius, or I sink.*'"
6. "While man exclaims, 'See all things for my use,"
7. 'See man for mine,' replies a pampered goose."
8. "'Will you walk into my parlor?'
Said a spider to a fly."
9. "He knew not that the chieftain lay
Unconscious of his son."
10. "He shouted but once more aloud,
'My father! must I stay?'"
11. "We bustle up with unsuccessful speed,
And in the saddest part cry, '*Droll, indeed!*'"
12. "Then Agrippa said unto Paul, 'Almost thou persuadest me to
be a Christian.'"
13. "A celebrated writer says, 'Take care of the minutes, and the
hours will take care of themselves.'"
14. "The little birds, at morning dawn,
Clothed in warm coats of feather,
Conclude that they away will roam
To seek for milder weather."
15. "I tell thee thou art defied."

AUXILIARY SENTENCES.—ADJECTIVE.

1. "But they that fight for freedom, undertake
The noblest cause mankind can have at stake."



A COMPLEX SENTENCE.

ANALYSIS of the PRINCIPAL SENTENCE.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS. { The *Subject* "They" } Simple
 { The *Predicate* "Undertake" } Transitive.
 { The *Object* "Cause" }

ADJUNCT ELEMENTS. { *Of the Subject* . { "That fight" } a Sentence.
 { *Of the Predicate* }
 { *Of the Object* . { "The" a Word.
 { "Noblest" a Word.
 { "[That] man- } a Sentence.
 { kind can have }
 { at stake" }

ANALYSIS of the FIRST AUXILIARY SENTENCE.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS. { The *Subject* "That."
 { The *Predicate* "Fight."

ADJUNCT ELEMENTS. { *Of the Subject*
 { *Of the Predicate* . "For freedom" . a Phrase.

ANALYSIS of the SECOND AUXILIARY SENTENCE.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS. { The *Subject* "Mankind."
 { The *Predicate* "Can have."
 { The *Object* "[That] understood."

ADJUNCT ELEMENTS. { *Of the Subject*
 { *Of the Predicate* "At stake" a Phrase.
 { *Of the Object*

Thus analyze and place in the same Diagram the following

ADDITIONAL SENTENCES.

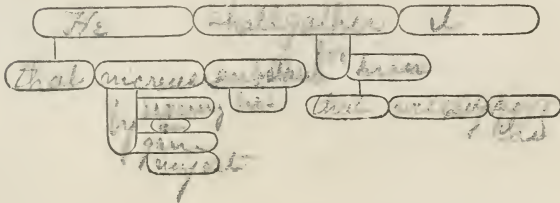
3. And students who love to study, merit the highest honors which teachers can give them.
4. And actions which were founded in justice, produced the good results which we had in view.
5. "But such as seek for truth shall find the richest boon which God to man can give."
6. "And I who bleed for thee,
Shall claim the brightest gift
Which thou canst yield to me."
7. "But he who wins at last,
Shall love the very toils
Which fortune round him cast."

THE ADJUNCTS VARY.

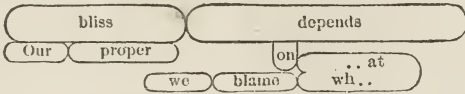
8. "He that walketh uprightly walketh surely."
9. "There is something in their hearts which passeth speech."
10. "He is in the way of life that keepeth instruction."
11. "I love the bright and glorious sun
That gives us light and heat ;
12. I love the pearly drops of dew
That sparkle 'neath my feet.
13. I love to think of him who made
These pleasant things for me."
14. "The boy stood on the burning deck,
Whence all but him had fled :
15. The flames that lit the battle's wreck,
Shone round him o'er the dead."
16. "I love to hear the little birds
That carol on the trees."
17. "Poverty and shame shall be to him that refuseth instruction."
18. "Wisdom resteth in the heart of him that hath understanding."
19. "Understanding is a well-spring of life to him that hath it."
20. "But the noblest thing that perished there
Was that young faithful heart."
21. "Thou hast green laurel leaves that twine
Into so proud a wreath.
22. Thou hast a voice whose thrilling tones
Can bid each life-pulse beat." (Page 269, Note 1.)

23. "Around Sebago's lonely lake
There lingers not a breeze to break
The mirror which its waters make."
24. "Cold in the dust this perished heart may lie,
But that which warmed it once shall never die."
25. "He that by usury and unjust gain increaseth his substance,
shall gather it for him that will pity the poor."

Let the Pupil place Sentence 25 in the subjoined Diagram



1. "Our proper bliss depends on what we blame."



A COMPLEX SENTENCE—THE AUXILIARY QUALIFIES A PHRASE.

Elements.

Offices.

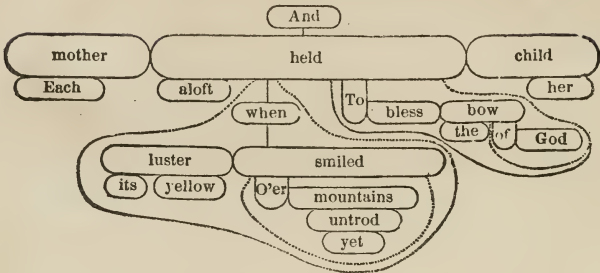
"Our"	Adjunct of "bliss."
"Proper"	Adjunct of "bliss."
"Bliss"	Subject of "depends."
"Depends"	Predicate of "bliss."
"On what we blame"	Adjunct of "depends."
"What," { [That]	Object of "on."
{ [Which]	Object of "blame."
"We"	Subject of "blame."
"Blame"	Predicate of "we."

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES.

2. "What thou dost not know thou canst not tell."
3. "I speak not to disprove what Brutus spoke."
4. "Seek not to know what is improper for thee."
5. "But here I stand and speak what I do know."

AUXILIARY SENTENCES.—ADVERBIAL.

1. "And when its yellow luster smiled
O'er mountains yet untrod,
Each mother held aloft her child,
To bless the bow of God."



ANALYSIS of the PRINCIPAL SENTENCE.

FIRST MODEL.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS. { The *Subject* "Mother" . . } Simple
 { The *Predicate* "Held" . . . } Transitive.
 { The *Object* "Child" . . . }

ADJUNCT ELEMENTS. { *Of the Subject* . . "Each" a Word.
 { "Aloft" a Word.
 { "When its yellow luster smiled o'er mountains yet untrod" a Sentence (Adverbial).
 { "To bless the bow of God" a Phrase.
 { *Of the Object* "Her" a Word.

SECOND MODEL.

<i>Elements.</i>	<i>Offices.</i>
"And"	Introduces the <i>Principal Sentence</i> .
"When its yellow luster smiled O'er mountains yet untrod," }	Adjunct of "held."
"Each"	Adjunct of "mother."
"Mother"	Subject of "held."
"Held"	Predicate of "mother."

"Aloft"	Adjunct of "held."
"Her"	Adjunct of "child."
"Child"	Object of "held."
"To bless the bow of God"	Adjunct of "held."

ANALYSIS of the AUXILIARY SENTENCE.

"When"	Introduces the <i>Auxiliary Sentence</i> .
"Its"	Adjunct of "luster."
"Yellow"	Adjunct of "luster."
"Luster"	Subject of "smiled."
"Smiled"	Predicate of "luster."
"O'er mountains yet untrod"	Adjunct of "smiled."

ANALYSIS of the ADJUNCT PHRASES.

"To"	Introduces the <i>Phrase</i> —connects "bless" with "held."
"Bless"	Object of "to."
"The"	Adjunct of "bow."
"Bow"	Object of "bless."
"Of God"	Adjunct of "bow."
"Of"	Introduces the <i>Phrase</i> —connects "God" with "bow."
"God"	Object of "of."
"O'er"	Introduces the <i>Phrase</i> —connects "mountains" with "smiled."
"Mountains"	Object of "o'er."
"Yet"	Adjunct of "untrod."
"Untrod"	Adjunct of "mountains."

Thus analyze the following ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES.

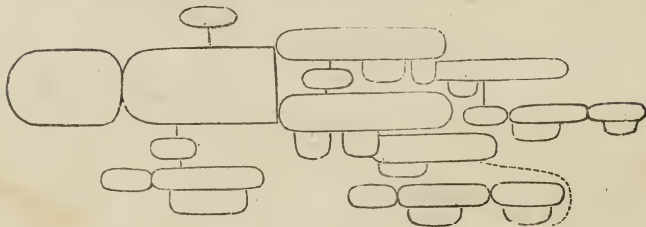
2. "Wherefore is there a price in the hand of a fool to get wisdom, seeing he hath no heart to it."
3. "Yet do I feel my soul recoil* within me,
As I contemplate the dim gulf of death."
4. "If we have *whispered* truth,
Whisper no longer."
5. "Speak as the tempest does,
Stern and stronger."
6. "The hoary head is a crown of glory, if it be found in the way of righteousness."
7. "Their advancement in life and in education was such that each ought to have been a gentleman."

* Page 269, Note I.

8. "The sweet REMEMBRANCE of the just,
SHALL FLOURISH when *he sleeps* in dust."
9. "But, when he caught the measure wild,
The old man raised his head and smiled."
10. "There are sumptuous mansions with marble walls,
Where fountains play in the perfumed halls."
11. "The earth hath felt the breath of spring,
Though yet on her deliverer's wing
The lingering frosts of winter cling."

EXAMPLES

Of SUBSTANTIVE, ADJECTIVE, and ADVERBIAL SENTENCES.



Let the Pupil name the Sentence below adapted to this Diagram, and place it in an exact copy, written on the black-board.

1. "If you would know the deeds of him who chews,
Enter the house of God, and see the pews."
2. "The man that dares traduce because he can
With safety to himself, is not a man."
3. "And, as I passed by, I heard the complaints of the laborers who
had reaped down his fields, and the cries of the poor whose
covering he had taken away."
4. "The time must come when all will have been said that can be
said to exalt the character of any individual of our race."
5. "Mysterious are his ways, whose power
Brings forth that unexpected hour,
When minds that never met before,
Shall meet, unite, and part no more."
6. "My heart is awed within me when I think
Of the great miracle that still goes on
In silence round me."

7. "When we consider carefully what* appeals to our minds, and exercise upon it our own reason—taking into respectful consideration what* others say upon it—and then come to a conclusion of our own, we act as intelligent beings."
8. "Before we passionately desire what* another enjoys, we should examine into the happiness of its possessor."
9. "With what loud applause didst thou beat heaven with blessing Bolingbroke, before he was what thou wouldst have him be!"

PROMISCUOUS EXAMPLES.

1. "The troubled ocean feels his steps, as he strides from wave to wave."
2. "Beneath the spear of Cathmar rose that voice which awakes the bards."
3. "As they sat down, one said to his friend on his right, 'We shall soon see who is who.'"
4. "He sunk to sleep
With all the nameless shapes that haunt the deep."
5. "Go to the mat *where squalid Want reclines,*
6. Go to the shade obscure *where Merit pines,*
7. Abide with him *whom Penury's charms control—*
And bind the rising yearnings of his soul.†
8. Survey his sleepless couch, and, standing there,
Tell the poor pallid wretch *that life is fair.'*"
9. "*It must be sweet,* in childhood, to give back
The spirit to its Maker, ere the heart
Has grown familiar with the ways of sin."
10. "Wheresoe'er our best affections dwell,
And strike a healthful root, is happiness."
11. "A man of refinement never *has recourse* to proverbs and vulgar aphorisms."
12. "Across the ocean *came* a pilgrim bark."
13. "The bark of the trunk of the white oak is frequently *variegated* with large spots."
14. "The wool of the young stocks is very *elastic*, and is *susceptible* of minute divisions."
15. "*The flowers put forth* in the month of May."
16. "*Night, sablé goddess,* from her ebon throne,
In rayless majesty, now *stretches* forth.
Her leaden *scepter* o'er a slumbering world."

* Pages 92 and 222.

‡

† See Key, p. 35.

17. " *Vulgarism in language is a distinguishing characteristic of bad company and a bad education.*"
18. " *The wood of the silver fir is not much used as timber.*"
19. " *The hemlock spruce is not much esteemed for timber.*"
20. " *Milton's learning has all the effect of intuition.*"
21. " *His imagination has the force of nature.*"
22. " *Heaven from all creatures hides the book of fate.*"
23. " *And as Jesus passed by, he saw a man who was blind.*"
24. " *If a noble squire had conducted himself well during the period of his service, the honor of knighthood was generally conferred upon him at the age of twenty.*"
25. " *Another bright day's sunset bathes the hills
That gird Samaria.*"
26. " *One glance of wonder, as we pass, deserves
The books of Time.*"
27. " *A fretful temper will divide
The choicest knot that may be tied,
By ceaseless, sharp corrosion.*
28. " *A temper, passionate and fierce,
May suddenly your joys disperse
At one immense explosion.*"
29. " *But no mere human work or character is perfect.*"
30. " *The profoundest depths of man's intellect can be fathomed.*"
31. " *In the loftiest flights of his imagination, he can be followed.*"
32. " *None of his richest mines are inexhaustible.*"
33. " *Then began he to upbraid the cities wherein most of his mighty works were done, because they repented not.*"
34. " *That secrets are a sacred trust,
That friends should be sincere and just,
That constancy befits them—
Are observations on the case,
That savor much of commonplace ;
And all the world admits them.*"
35. " *The dilatory caution of Pope enabled him to condense his sentiments, to multiply his images, and to accumulate all that study might produce or chance supply.*"
36. " *Dryden often surpasses expectation—*
37. " *Pope never falls below it.*"
38. " *Dryden is read with frequent astonishment—*
39. " *Pope, with perpetual delight.*"
- 40.

REM.—For the encouragement of Pupils who may not be able prop-

Book on page 98

erly to analyze the more difficult of the preceding Sentences, the following Exercises are simplified—

1. The Principal Elements of the Principal Sentences are printed in SMALL CAPITALS ;
2. The Principal Elements of the Auxiliary Sentences are printed in *Italic letters* ;
3. The letters in the margin refer to the appropriate DIAGRAMS (for the Principal Elements only) on page 45 ;
4. The *forms* and the *offices* of the Phrases are indicated by appropriate references.

THE AMERICAN FLAG.—*J. R. Drake.*

- B. When *Freedom*, from her mountain height,**b*
Unfurled her standard to the air,**b*
1. I. SHE TORE the azure ROBE of night**a*
 And SET the STARS of glory**a* there ;
 2. I. SHE MINGLED with the gorgeous dyes**a*
 The milky BALDRIC of the skies,**a*
 And STRIPED its pure celestial WHITE
 With streakings**b* of the morning light ;**a*
 Then, from his mansion**b* in the sun,**b*
 3. I. SHE CALLED her EAGLE-BEARER down,
 And GAVE into his mighty hand**b*
 The SYMBOLOF her chosen land.**a*
- Majestic monarch of the cloud,**a*
- B. *Who rear'st* aloft thy regal form,
 To hear the tempest-trumpings loud,†*b*
 And see the lightning lances†*b* driven,†*b*
- A. When *strike* the warriors of the storm,**a*
 A. And *rolls* the thunder-drum of heaven,**a*
 A. Child of the Sun,* to thee**b* 'TIS GIVEN,
 To guard the banner†*c* of the free,**a*
 To hover†*c* in the sulphur smoke,**b*
 To ward away the battle-stroke,†*c*
 And bid its blendings†*c* shine afar.†*b*
 Like rainbows,**b* on the cloud**b* of war,**a*
 The harbinger of victory.**a*

* Prepositional Phrase.

a Adjective Phrase.

b Adverbial Phrase.

† Infinitive Phrase.

c Independent Phrase.

- 5 A. Flag of the brave,**a* thy FOLDS SHALL FLY—
The sign of hope and triumph**a*—high.
A. When *speaks* the signal *trumpet-tone*,
A. And the long *line comes* gleaming on,
B. (Ere yet the *life-blood*, warm and wet,
Has dimmed the glist'ning *bayonet*),
6. M. Each soldier's EYE SHALL brightly TURN
A. To where thy *meteor-glories burn*,**b*
A. And, as his springing *steps advance*,
CATCH WAR and VENGEANCE from the glance;**b*
B. And, when the *cannon-moublings* loud
Heave, in wild wreaths,**b* the *battle-shroud*,
C. And gory *sabers rise* and *fall*,
Like shoots**b* of flame**a* on midnight's pall,**b*
7. A. There SHALL thy VICTOR-GLANCES GLOW ;
8. A. And cowering FOES SHALL SHRINK beneath
A. Each gallant arm**b* that strikes below
That lovely messenger**b* of death.**a*
- Flag of the seas,**a* on ocean's wave,**b*
9. A. Thy STARS SHALL GLITTER o'er the brave;**b*
A. When *death*, careering on the gale,**b*
Sweeps darkly round the bellied sail,**b*
A. And frightened *waves rush* wildly back,
Before the broadside's reeling rack,**b*
10. C. The dying WANDERER of the sea**a*
SHALL LOOK at once**b* to heaven and thee,**b*
And SMILE to see thy splendors†*b* fly†*b*
In triumph**b* o'er his closing eye.**b*
- Flag of the free heart's only home,**a*
By angel-hands**b* to valor**b* given,
11. B. Thy STARS HAVE LIT the welkin DOME,
12. A. And all thy HUES WERE BORN in heaven :**b*
13. B. For ever**b* FLOAT that standard SHEET !
14. A. Where BREATHES the FOE *but falls* before us,**b*
With‡ Freedom's soil beneath our feet,**b*
And Freedom's banner streaming o'er us?**b*

‡ See page 233, Obs. 7. See also Key, p. 45.

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

REMARK 1.—In PART I. we have considered—

1. The *Structure* of Sentences and of Phrases ;
2. The *Elements* which compose a Sentence or a Phrase ;
3. The *Classification* of Sentences and of Phrases ;
4. The *Analysis* of Sentences—*Proximate* and *Ultimate*.

REM. 2.—In our progress through PART I. we have seen,

1. That the *Proximate Analysis* of a Sentence consists in resolving it into its *immediate Constituent Elements*.
2. That the *Ultimate Analysis* of a Sentence consists in reducing its *Proximate Elements* to the *WORDS* which compose them.

REM. 3.—We have next to consider the history of *WORDS*—considered as ultimate *Elements* of Sentences—including

- | | | |
|-----------------------------|--|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Their <i>Formation</i> . | | 3. Their <i>Classifications</i> . |
| 2. Their <i>Functions</i> . | | 4. Their <i>Modifications</i> . |

The Science of Language embraces,

1. ORTHOGRAPHY—which treats of the *Structure* and *Form* of Words.
2. ETYMOLOGY—which treats of the *Classification* and *Modification* of Words.
3. SYNTAX—which treats of the *Relation* and mutual *Dependence* of Words.
4. PROSODY—which treats of the *Arrangement* and *Utterance* of Words.

REM.—A true system of Analysis requires that the *Functions* of Words be discussed previous to the consideration of their *Elements*. Hence we have placed an outline of ORTHOGRAPHY in the Appendix to this Work

CLASSIFICATION AND MODIFICATION OF WORDS.

Words are distinguished by their *Forms* and by their *Uses*.

1. THE FORMS OF WORDS.

By their *forms*, *Words* are distinguished as
Radical or *Derivative*,
Simple or *Compound*.

DEF. 52.—A *Radical Word* is a word that does not derive its original from another word in the same language.

EXAMPLES.—Sun—cloud—rose—friend—chief—swift—just—sell.

DEF. 53.—A *Derivative Word* is a word derived from a *Radical*, by prefixing or adding one or more letters to it.

EXAMPLES.—Sunny—swiftly—cloudy—sinful—selling—unconscious—roseate—friendly—justify—chieftain.

OBS.—A *Word* that is *Radical* in the English language, may be a *Derivative* in the language from which it comes.

EXAMPLES.—Conscience—optics—algebra—philosophy—signify.

DEF. 54.—A *Simple Word* is a word that is used separately from another word.

EXAMPLES.—Have—brightly—freedom—parlor—music—study—times—patience—loved—cottage—peace—cold.

DEF. 55.—A *Compound Word* is a word that is made of two or more words combined.

EXAMPLES.—Star-light—household-words—rose-bud—steam-engine—pencil-case—never-the-less—moon-beam—rail-road.

OBS.—The parts of a *Compound Word* are printed as one word without space between them, or they are joined by a short horizontal line (-) called a hyphen.

EXAMPLES (*without the hyphen*).—Overlay—underwrite—withstand—sometimes—nevertheless

“ (*with the hyphen*).—Hour-glass—warm-hearted—praiseworthy.

The *Parts* of a Compound Word are the Basis and the ADJUNCT.

DEF. 56.—The *Basis* of a Compound Word is the Principal Element in the word.

EXAMPLES. — Race-horse — horse-race — hour-glass—sergeant-at-arms—father-in-law—aid-de-camp.

DEF. 57.—The *Adjunct* of a Compound Word is the part that *limits* or *modifies* the Basis.

EXAMPLES. — Race-horse — horse-race — hour-glass — jack-o'-lantern — father-in-law—aid-de-camp.

OBS.—The Adjunct of a Word may be one *Word* or a *Phrase*.

EXAMPLES.—One *Word*.—Man-stealer—race-horse—book-maker.

A *Phrase*.—Father-in-law—aid-de-camp—will-o'-the-wisp.

REM.—*Derivative* and *Compound* Words have this distinction, viz. :

Compound Words consist of two or more complete Words ; whereas, *Derivative* Words consist of one Word with *Letters* or *Particles* prefixed or attached. These *Particles* are called PREFIXES and SUFFIXES.

DEF. 58.—A *Prefix* is one or more letters placed before a Radical, to form a *Derivative* Word.

EXAMPLES — Reform—degrade—overlook—undertake—involve—elect—absolve—perfect.

DEF. 59.—A *Suffix* is one or more letters added to a Word, to make it *Derivative*.

EXAMPLES.—Forming—graded—homely—goodness.

REM.—Words may have more than one Prefix or Suffix. Hence,

Prefixes and Suffixes are distinguished as *Simple* or *Compound*.

EXAMPLES OF SIMPLE.

<i>Prefixes.</i>		<i>Suffixes.</i>	
<i>Absolve,</i>	<i>Compose,</i>	<i>Forming,</i>	<i>Taken,</i>
<i>Dissolve,</i>	<i>Depose,</i>	<i>Formation,</i>	<i>Verbose,</i>
<i>Resolve,</i>	<i>Repose,</i>	<i>Dangerous,</i>	<i>Rudely,</i>
<i>Deform,</i>	<i>Betake,</i>	<i>Coinage,</i>	<i>Hopeful,</i>
<i>Inform,</i>	<i>Overtake,</i>	<i>Goodness,</i>	<i>Censular,</i>
<i>Uniform,</i>	<i>Undertake.</i>	<i>Bigotry,</i>	<i>Lambkin.</i>

COMPOUND.

<i>Prefixes.</i>		<i>Suffixes.</i>
Re con struct,		Lone li ness,
Mis con ceive,		Might i ly,
In co herent,		Fear less ness,
Un pre tending,		Right ful ly,
Ir re vocable,		Form a tion,
Im per forated.		Modi fi cation.

Prefixes and Suffixes.

<i>Reducing,</i>		<i>Abnegation,</i>
<i>Dissolved,</i>		<i>Confinement,</i>
Conformable,		Substantial,
Reconciliation,		Unconditionally,
Transubstantiation,		Disseminating,
Indissoluble.		Conformability.

The *Radicals* of Derivative Words are

SEPARABLE OR INSEPARABLE.

DEF. 60.—A *Separable Radical* constitutes a perfect Word, without its Prefixes or Suffixes.

EXAMPLES.

Reform,	}	<i>form.</i>		Adjoin,	}	<i>join.</i>
Deform,				Conjoin,		
Inform,				Enjoin,		
Conform,				Unjoin,		

DEF. 61.—An *Inseparable Radical* is not used as a distinct word in the language, without the aid of its Prefixes or Suffixes.

EXAMPLES.

Collect,	}	<i>lect.</i>		Advert,	}	<i>vert.</i>
Delectable,				Convertible,		
Election,				Diverting,		
Recollect,				Inversion,		
Recollecting,				Undiverted,		

* NOTE.—For an extended list of Prefixes and Suffixes, see “*Derivation of Words*” in SANDERS’ ANALYSIS OF WORDS.

II. THE USES OF WORDS.

By their *uses*, Words are distinguished as

- | | | |
|------------------------------|---|----------------------------------|
| 1. <i>Nouns</i> , | } | Principal Elements in Sentences. |
| 2. <i>Pronouns</i> , | | |
| 3. <i>Verbs</i> , | | |
| 4. <i>Adjectives</i> , | } | Adjunct Elements. |
| 5. <i>Adverbs</i> , | | |
| 6. <i>Prepositions</i> , | } | Attendant Elements. |
| 7. <i>Conjunctions</i> , | | |
| 8. <i>Exclamations</i> , | | |
| 9. <i>Words of Euphony</i> , | | |

DEF. 62.—A *Noun* is a Word used as the *Name* of a being, of a place, or of a thing.

EXAMPLES.—“The *king* of *shadows* loves a shining *mark*.”

OBS. 1.—Nouns are names of

1. Material things, as—*Man—book—house—apples*.
2. Ideas or things not material, as—*Mind—hope—desire—aversion—remorse—joy*

OBS.—Let the Pupil be careful here to distinguish a *name* from the *thing* named; and remember that the *name* is the *Noun*. Thus, a *house* is a *thing*—the *name* of that thing is a *Noun*.

CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS.

REMARK.—Some Nouns are appropriated to individual persons or places, or to things personified; others are general in their application, being used to designate classes or sorts. Hence,

Nouns are distinguished as

Proper and *Common*.

DEF. 63.—A *Proper Noun* is a name appropriated to an individual person or place, or to a thing personified.

EXAMPLES.—*William—Boston—Hudson—Oregon*.

“And old *Experience* learns too late
That all is vanity below.”

DEF. 64.—A *Common Noun* is a name used to designate one or more of a *class* or *sort* of beings or things.

EXAMPLES.—Man—book—conscience—feeling—landscape.

“Now fades the glimmering *landscape* on the *sight*.”

OBS. 1.—Some Common Nouns are the names of *qualities*.

DEF. 65.—An *Abstract Noun* is the name of a *quality* of a thing, and not of the Substance.

EXAMPLES.—Goodness—meekness—impracticability.

DEF. 66.—A *Collective Noun* is a Noun that is Singular in form but Plural in sense.

EXAMPLES.—Committee—assembly—army—tribe—clan—multitude.

“The village master taught his little *school*.”

DEF. 67.—A *Verbal Noun* is a Noun derived from a Verb; being in *form*, a Participle—in *office*, a Substantive.

EXAMPLES.—Beginning—gatherings—spelling—joining.

“In the *beginning*, God created the heaven and the earth.”

OBS. 1.—The Classification of Nouns as *Common* and *Proper*, is one rather of curiosity than of practical utility in the Science of Language.

OBS. 2.—A Word is known to be a Noun,

1st. By its being a *Name*.

2d. By its performing a *Substantive office*.

OBS. 3.—A *Substantive* may be,

1. The *Subject* of a Sentence.

2. The *Object* of a Sentence or of a Phrase.

3. A Name or an Equivalent, *independent* in construction.

But,

OBS. 4.—A *Substantive office* may be performed by *Words*, by *Phrases*, and by *Sentences*.

EXAMPLES.

1. By *Words*, NOUNS.—1. *Paul the Apostle wrote an Epistle to Timothy.*
PRONOUNS.—2. *Was it you that introduced me to him?*
2. By *Phrases*.—3. *“Taking a madman’s sword, to prevent his doing mischief, can not be regarded as robbing him.”*
3. By *Sentences*.—4. *“That all men are created equal, is a self-evident truth.”*
5. *“But Brutus says, he was ambitious.”*
6. *“There is no question as to which must yield.”*

Hence,

OBS. 5.—A *Noun* is generally *Substantive*. But a *Word* commonly used as a *Noun* may become,

1. An *Adjective*; as, An *iron fence—gold leaf*.
2. An *Adverb*; as, *Go home and come back*.
3. A *Verb*; as, *“But if you mouth it.”*

OBS. 6.—A *Substantive* office is sometimes performed by words commonly used—

- (a.) As *Adjectives*.—1. *“The good alone are great.”*
2. *“Nor grudge I thee the much the Grecians give,
Nor, murm’ring, take the little I receive.”—Dryden.*
- (b.) As *Adverbs*.—3. *“’Tis Heaven itself that points out an here-after.”—Addison.*
- (c.) As *Conjunctions*.—4. *“Your if is the only peace-maker;
much virtue is in if.”—Shakspeare.*
- (d.) As an *Exclamation*.—5. *“With hark and whoop and wild halloo.”—Scott.*

MODIFICATION OF NOUNS.

REM.—Some *Nouns* and *Pronouns*, by their form, by their position in a *Sentence*, or by their obvious uses, indicate—

1. The *sex*—as male or female, or neither.
2. The *speaker*, the being addressed, or the being or thing spoken of.
3. The *number* of beings or things—as one or more.
4. The *condition*, with regard to other *Words* in the *Sentence*, as
 - (1.) The *Subject* of a *Sentence*.
 - (2.) The *Object* of a *Sentence* or of a *Phrase*.
 - (3.) *Independent* in construction. Hence,

Nouns are modified by *Gender*, *Person*, *Number*, and *Case*.

GENDER.

DEF. 68.—Gender is the modification of such Nouns and Pronouns as, by their form, distinguish the sex.

DEF. 69.—Nouns and Pronouns that indicate *Males* are of the *Masculine Gender*.

EXAMPLES.—Man—lion—ox—David—John.

DEF. 70.—Nouns and Pronouns indicating *Females* are of the *Feminine Gender*.

EXAMPLES.—Woman—lioness—cow—Dollie—Jane.

DEF. 71.—Nouns and Pronouns that do not indicate the sex, are said to be of the *Neuter Gender*.

EXAMPLES.—Book—pen—table—star—planet.

OBS. 1.—Strict propriety will allow the names of *animals only* to be modified by Gender.

OBS. 2.—Young animals and infants are not always distinguished by Gender; as, “Mary’s kitten is very playful—*it* is quite a pet with the whole family.”

“Calm as an infant as *it* sweetly sleeps.”

OBS. 3.—Things personified are often represented by Pronouns of the Masculine or of the Feminine Gender.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “Then Fancy *her* magical pinions spread wide.”
 2. “Time slept on flowers, and lent *his* glass to Hope.”
 3. “For the Angel of Death spread *his* wings on the blast,
 And breathed in the face of the foe as *he* pass’d.”

OBS. 4.—Many Nouns which denote the office or condition of persons, and some others, are not distinguished by Gender.

EXAMPLES.—Parent—cousin—friend—neighbor—teacher.

OBS. 5.—Whenever Words are used which include both Males and Females, without having a direct reference to the sex, the Word appropriated to males is commonly employed.

EXAMPLES.—1. "The proper study of *mankind* is *man*."

2. "There is no flesh in *man's* obdurate heart—
It does not feel for *women*."

But to this rule there are exceptions; as, geese, ducks.

The Gender of Nouns is determined

1. By the termination; as,

<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>
Actor,	Actress.	Patron,	Patroness.
Administrator,	Administratrix.	Prince,	Princess.
Author,	Authoress.	Protector,	Protectress.
Governor,	Governess.	Shepherd,	Shepherdess.
Heir,	Heiress.	Songster,	Songstress.
Host,	Hostess.	Tiger,	Tigress.
Hero,	Heroine.	Tutor,	Tutress.
Jew,	Jewess.	Tailor,	Tailoress.
Lion,	Lioness.	Widower,	Widow.

2. By different Words; as,

<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>
Bachelor	Maid.	Husband,	Wife.
Deau,	Belle.	King,	Queen.
Boy.	Girl.	Lad,	Lass.
Brother,	Sister.	Lord,	Lady.
Drake,	Duck.	Man,	Woman.
Father,	Mother	Master,	Mistress.
Friar,	Nun.	Nephew,	Niece.

3. By prefixing or affixing other Words; as,

<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>
Man-servant,	Maid-servant.
He-goat.	She-goat.
Cock-sparrow,	Hen-sparrow.
Landlord,	Landlady.
Gentleman,	Gentlewoman.

NOTE.—In the English language, less importance is attached to the Gender of Nouns than in the Latin, Greek, and other languages—the relation of Words in Sentences depending more upon *position* and less upon the terminations. Hence, in parsing Nouns and Pronouns, the Gender need not be mentioned, unless they are obviously Masculine or Feminine.

PERSON.

REM.—All Nouns are the Names of

1. The persons speaking.
2. The persons or things addressed. Or,
3. The persons or things spoken of. Hence,

Nouns and Pronouns are of the

First Person, Second Person, or Third Person.

DEF. 72.—The name of the *speaker* or *writer* is of the *First Person*.

EXAMPLES.—“*I, John, saw these things.*”
 “*We Athenians are in fault.*”

DEF. 73.—The name of a *person* or *thing addressed*, is of the *Second Person*.

EXAMPLE.—“*Father, thy hand
 Hath reared these venerable columns; th
 Didst weave this verdant roof.*”

DEF. 74.—The name of the *person* or *thing spoken of*, is of the *Third Person*.

EXAMPLES.—“*The hero hath departed.*”
 “*Honor guides his footsteps.*”

NUMBER.

REM.—Nouns by their form, denote individuality or plurality. Hence,

Nouns are distinguished as

Singular and Plural.

DEF. 75.—Nouns denoting but one, are of the

Singular Number.

EXAMPLES.—Man—boy—pen—book—mouse—ox.

DEF. 76.—Nouns denoting more than one, are of the

Plural Number.

EXAMPLES.—Men—boys—pens—books—mice—oxen.

OBS. 1.—The *Number* of a Noun is usually determined by its *form*. The Plural of most Nouns differs from the Singular, by having an additional *s*.

EXAMPLES.

<i>Singular.</i> —Act,	Egg,	Book,	Mastiff,	Pen,	Chair.
<i>Plural.</i> —Acts,	Eggs,	Books,	Mastiffs,	Pens,	Chairs.

Obs. 2.—But a Noun whose Singular form ends in *s*, *ss*, *sh*, *x*, *ch* (soft), and some Nouns in *o* and *y*, form the Plural by the addition of *es*.

EXAMPLES.

<i>Singular.</i> —Gas,	Lynx,	Church,	Lash,	Glass,	Hero
<i>Plural.</i> —Gases,	Lynxes,	Churches,	Lashes,	Glasses,	Heroes.

Obs. 3.—*Y* final, after a Consonant is changed into *ie* (the original orthography), and *s* is added.

EXAMPLES.

<i>Singular.</i> —Lady,	Folly,	Quality,	City.
<i>Old form.</i> —Ladie,	Follie,	Qualitie,	Citie.
<i>Plural.</i> —Ladies,	Follies,	Qualities,	Cities.

Exception.—But Proper Nouns in *y* commonly form the Plurals by adding *s* to the *y*; as, the two *Livys*—the *Tullys*.

Obs. 4.—In the following Nouns, *f* final is changed into *v*, and the usual termination for the Plural is added :

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Beef,	Beeves.	Self,	Selves.
Calf,	Calves.	Shelf,	Shelves.
Elf,	Elves.	Sheaf,	Sheaves.
Half,	Halves.	Thief,	Thieves.
Leaf,	Leaves.	Wolf,	Wolves
Loaf,	Loaves.		

Other Nouns in *f* form their Plurals regularly.

Obs. 5.—But most Nouns ending in *fe* are changed into *ves*.

EXAMPLES.

<i>Singular.</i> —Knife,	Life,	Wife.
<i>Plural.</i> —Knives,	Lives,	Wives.

Obs. 6.—Many Nouns form their Plurals irregularly.

EXAMPLES.

<i>Singular.</i> —Man,	Child,	Foot,	Ox,	Mouse.
<i>Plural.</i> —Men,	Children.	Feet,	Oxen,	Mice.

Obs. 7.—In most *Compound Words*, the *basis* only is varied to form the Plural, if its *Adjunct Word* precedes, or its *Adjunct Phrase* follows.

EXAMPLES.

Singular.—Fellow-servant, Ink-stand, Race-horse, Camp-meeting,
Plural.—Fellow-servants, Ink-stands, Race-horses, Camp-meetings.

Singular.—Father-in-law, Aid-de-camp,
Plural.—Fathers-in-law, Aides-de-camp.

Obs. 8.—But, if the *Adjunct Word* follows the *basis*, the Plural termination is commonly attached to the *Adjunct*.

EXAMPLES.

Singular.—Arm-full, Camera-obscura, Ignis-fatuus.
Plural.—Arm-fulls, Camera-obscuras, Ignis-fatuauses.

Obs. 9.—In forming the Plural of Nouns having titles prefixed or annexed, custom is not uniform.

There seems to be a propriety in regarding a name and its title as a Compound Noun; as, *Jonathan Edwards*, *John Smith*, *Miss Bowen*

If, then, it is decided which part of the Compound Word—the *Name* or the *Title*—is to be regarded as the *Basis*, and which the *Adjunct*, the Plural termination should be attached as directed in Obs. 7 and 8, above. Thus, *Miss Bowen* and her sister, two ladies unmarried, are *Misses*. “I called to see the *Misses Bowen*.”

“We purchase goods of the *Messrs. Barber*.” Here the titles constitute the *Bases*—the *nomen*, the *Adjuncts*.

Again: *Patterson the father* and *Patterson the son* are two *Pattersons*. They are both doctors. If we speak of them as *men*, we make the *Name* the *Basis* and the *Title* as *Adjunct*; thus, “I visited the two *Doctor Pattersons*.” But if we speak of them as *Doctors*, we make the *Title* the *Basis*, and pluralize it; thus, “We employed *Doctors J. & A. Patterson*.”

Obs. 10.—Some Nouns have no Plurals.

EXAMPLES.—Wheat—silver—gold—iron—gratitude.

Obs. 11.—Some Nouns have no Singular.

EXAMPLES.—Tangs—embers—vespers—literati—scissors.

Obs. 12.—Some Nouns have the same Form in both Numbers.

EXAMPLES.

Singular.—Apparatus, News, Wages, Sheep, Vermin,
Plural.—Apparatus, News, Wages, Shecp, Vermin

OBS. 13.—Some Nouns, having a Singular form, are used in a Plural sense.

EXAMPLES.—Horse—foot—cavalry—cannon—sail. One thousand *horse* and two thousand *feet*—five hundred *cavalry*—fifty *cannon*—twenty *sail* of the line—and, for supplies, five hundred *head* of cattle.

OBS. 14.—Some Nouns, having no Plural form to indicate Number, receive a Plural termination to indicate different species.

EXAMPLES.—Wines.—“Most wines contain over twenty per cent. of alcohol.” Tea.—“The teas of the Nankin Company are all good.”

OBS. 15.—Many Latin, Greek, and Hebrew Nouns used in English composition, retain their original Plurals. Commonly the terminations *um*, *us*, and *on*, of the Singular, are changed into *a*, for the Plural; *x* into *ces*, and *is* into *es*.

EXAMPLES.

<i>Singular</i> .—Datum,	Genus,	Criterion,	Index,	Axis,
<i>Plural</i> .—Data,	Genera,	Criteria,	Indices,	Axes.

EXERCISES IN GENDER, PERSON, AND NUMBER.

Let the Class give, 1st, the Gender—2d, the Person—3d, the Number of each of the following Names—always giving a reason for the modification, by repeating the Definitions.

William,	Boy,	Town,	Army,
Ganges,	Girl,	County,	Data,
Andes,	Aunt,	Troy,	Index,
Cuba,	Cousin,	City,	Question.

Let Sentences be made, in which the following Words shall be in the Second Person.

MODEL.

“Father, thy hand hath reared this venerable column.”

Father,	Stars,	Thou	Heralds,
Mother,	Hills,	You,	Messengers,
Sun,	Rivers,	Ye,	Walls,
Earth,	Woods,	Men,	Floods.

Let other Sentences be made, having the same Words in the Third Person, after the following

MODEL.

“My *Father* made them all.”

Let the following Singular Nouns be changed to their Plurals, and placed in Sentences,—always giving the Rule for the change of Number.

Boy,	Motto,	Fox,	Ox,	Son-in-law,
Father,	Hero,	Staff,	Pea,	Spoon-full,
Man,	Knife,	Goose,	Basis,	Cousin-german,
Child,	Hoof,	Mouse,	Stratum,	Knight-errant.

MODEL.

“The *boys* have accomplished their tasks.”

Let the Gender and Number of the following Nouns be changed and placed in Sentences.

Man,	Bachelor,	Brother,	Poetess,
Boys,	Lioness,	Sons,	Prince,
Uncles,	Geese,	Sister,	Tutor,
Council,	Cow,	Maid,	Widower.

MODELS.

“Two *women* shall be grinding at the mill.”

“And the *widows* of Asher are loud in their wail.”

CASE.

REM. 1.—A Noun or a Pronoun is used—

1. As the Subject of a Sentence.
2. As a Definitive of some other Noun.
3. As the Object of an action or relation, or
4. Independent of other Words in the Sentence.

REM. 2.—These different conditions of Nouns, suggest their modifications in regard to Case; for *Case*, in Grammar, means *condition*. Hence,

Nouns are distinguished as being in the

<i>Nominative Case,</i>		<i>Objective Case,</i>
<i>Possessive Case,</i>		<i>Independent Case.</i>

OBS.—In the Latin, Greek, German, and many other languages, the Cases of Nouns are determined by their terminations. But, as English Nouns have no inflections, *except to form Adjuncts*, the Cases are determined *only by the offices* of Nouns in Sentences. Hence,

DEF. 77.—A Noun or a Pronoun which is the subject of a Sentence, is in the *Nominative Case*.

EXAMPLES.—*Animals* run.—*John* saws wood.—*Resources* are developed
 “The *king* of shadows loves a shining mark.”

OBS. 1.—The Subject of a Sentence may be a Noun, a Pronoun, a Phrase, or a Sentence.

EXAMPLES.

1. A *Noun*.—*Virtue* secures happiness.
2. A *Pronoun*.—“*He* plants his footsteps in the sea.”
3. A *Phrase*.—“*To be able to read well*, is a valuable accomplishment.”
4. A *Sentence*.—“*That good men sometimes commit faults*, can not be denied.”

DEF. 78.—A Noun or a Pronoun varied in its orthography, so that it may indicate a relation of possession, is in the *Possessive Case*.

OBS. 1.—The Possessive is formed by adding an apostrophe and *s* to the Nominative.

EXAMPLES.

<i>Nominative</i> .—Man,	Boy,	World,	George.
<i>Possessive</i> .—Man's,	Boy's,	World's,	George's.

“Then shall *man's* pride and dullness comprehend
 His *action's*, *passion's*, *being's*, use and end.”—*Pope*.

OBS. 2.—In a few Words, ending in the Singular, with the sound of *s* or of *c* soft, the additional *s* is omitted for euphony.

EXAMPLES.—“For conscience' sake.”
 “Festus came into Felix' room.”

OBS. 3.—Most Plural Nouns ending in *s*, add the apostrophe only.

EXAMPLES.

<i>Nominative</i> .—Horses,	Eagles,	Foxes.
<i>Possessive</i> .—Horses',	Eagles',	Foxes'

“Heroes' and heroines' shouts confusedly rise.”

OBS. 4.—The term *Possessive Case* is applied to Nouns and Pronouns, to indicate a peculiar variation of Words in respect of *form*; and, because this form *commonly* indicates a relation of possession, it is termed *Possessive Case*. But,

Obs. 5.—Nouns and Pronouns in the Possessive Case do not always indicate “possession or ownership.”

Children’s shoes.—Here the word “children’s” does not imply ownership. It simply specifies “shoes” as to size.

Small shoes—Here “small” specifies “shoes” in a similar manner. “Small” and “children’s” performing similar offices, are similar in their etymology. “Small” is an Adjective—“Children’s” is an Adjective.

Obs. 6.—A System of Grammar, having its foundation in the doctrine that Words and other Elements of Sentences are to be classified *according to their offices*—and that is the proper criterion—must class Possessive Nouns and Pronouns as *Adjectives*.

Note the *Exceptions* to this Proposition, Obs. 9, below.

Obs. 7.—Words commonly used as Nouns and Pronouns become Adjectives *whenever their principal office is to limit or describe beings or things*; and they may have the form of the *Nominative*, of the *Possessive*, or of the *Objective Case*.

EXAMPLES.

Nominative Form.—A gold pen—a he goat.

Possessive Form.—Wisdom’s ways—thine enemy—my self.

Objective Form.—A gold pen—silver steel—them selves.

Obs. 8.—When such Words are not used as Adjuncts, they are *Substantives*, and are found to be in some cases *other than the Possessive*, although they retain the Possessive form. [See Obs. and Examples below, p. 86.]

DEF. 79.—A Noun or a Pronoun which is the Object of a Sentence or of a Phrase, is in the *Objective Case*.

EXAMPLES.

1. John saws wood.
2. Science promotes happiness.
3. “The king of shadows loves a shining mark.”
4. “In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth.”
5. “Scaling yonder peak, I saw an eagle wheeling near its brow.”

DEF. 80.—A Noun or a Pronoun not dependent on any other Word in construction, is in the *Independent Case*.

Obs. 1.—The Independent Case includes nouns used as the names of persons addressed.

EXAMPLES.—O Liberty!—“Friends, Romans, countrymen.”

Obs. 2.—Names used to specify or define other names previously mentioned, are in the Independent Case.

EXAMPLES.—1. Paul, the *Apostle*, wrote to Timothy.

Here, “Paul” is the subject of “wrote ;” hence in the Nominative Case (see Def. 78). “Apostle” designates which “Paul” is intended ; hence in the Independent Case.

2. Webster, the *Statesman*, has been mistaken by some foreign authors for Webster, the *Lexicographer*.

Here, the Words “*Statesman*” and “*Lexicographer*” are used to *limit, define, and describe* the two “Websters.” Hence,

REM.—Words thus used are to be regarded as *Logical Adjuncts*. (See Part I., p. 28, Obs. 3.)

Obs. 3.—Nouns used to introduce Independent Phrases, are in the Independent Case.

EXAMPLE.—The *hour* having arrived, we commenced the exercises.

Obs. 4.—Nouns and Pronouns used in predication with Verbs.

EXAMPLES.—“God is *love*.”—“It is *I*.”—“The wages of sin is *death*.”

REM.—The term PREDICATE CASE is, by some grammarians, applied to Nouns and Pronouns in Predicate.

Obs. 5.—Nouns and Pronouns used for euphony, titles of books, cards, signs, are in the Independent Case.

EXAMPLES.—1. “The moon *herself* is lost in heaven.”

2. “Webster’s *Dictionary*.”—3. “*J. Barber, Son, & Company*.”

Obs. 6.—In the English language, Nouns are not varied in form to distinguish the Cases, except for the Possessive. The Case is always determined by its *office*.

- (1.) If it is the *Subject* of a Sentence, it is, *therefore*, in the *Nominative Case*.
- (2.) If it is the *Object* of a Sentence or the Object of a Phrase, it is, *therefore*, in the *Objective Case*.
- (3.) If it performs neither of these offices and has not a Possessive form, it is not joined to any word going before in construction, and is, *therefore*, in the *Independent Case*.
- 4.) If it has a Possessive form, or any other form, and limits or describes a being or a thing, it performs the office of an *Adjunct*, and is, *therefore*, an *Adjective*.

Obs. 7.—Nouns and Pronouns in the *Nominative* or in the *Objective Case* are used *Substantively*. In the *Independent Case* they are used *Substantively*, or as *Logical Adjuncts*. (See Obs. 2. above.) In the *Possessive Case* they are commonly used as *Grammatical Adjuncts*.

Obs. 8.—EXCEPTION.—Nouns and Pronouns of the Possessive form, are sometimes used *Substantively*; but, when thus used, they are in the *Nominative*, in the *Objective*, or in the *Independent Case*.

EXAMPLES.

(a.) *Nominative*.—My book is new; *John's* is old.

Mine is little used; *yours* is soiled.

“*Mine*” is the Subject of the Sentence; hence in the *Nominative Case*,

(b.) *Objective*.—John is a friend of *mine*.

“*Mine*” is the Object of the Preposition “*of*”; hence in the *Objective Case*.

NOTE.—It is a mistaken notion of certain grammarians, that “*mine*,” in the above example, is equivalent to “*my friend*,” and must therefore be “in the Possessive Case, and governed by friend understood.”

John is a friend of *mine*; *i. e.*, he is friendly to me.

Fred is my enemy; but he is a friend of “*my friend*.”

Is “*mine*” equivalent to “*my friend*”? How the notion vanishes before the test!

(c.) *Independent*.—The book is *mine*; it was *yours*.

“*Mine*” is used in *Predicate* with “*is*”; hence in the *Independent or Predicate Case*.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

PAGE

69. What are the principal subjects discussed in Part I. ? . . . See Rem. 1.
 What is *Proximate Analysis* of Sentences ? See Rem. 2.
 What is *Ultimate Analysis* ? See Rem. 2.
 What is the province of Part II. ? See Rem. 3.
 The Science of Language embraces *what divisions* ?
70. In how many ways are Words *distinguished* ?
 By their *forms*, how are Words distinguished ?
 What is a *Radical Word* ? See Def. 52.
 What is a *Derivative Word* ? See Def. 53.
 What is a *Simple Word* ? See Def. 54.
 What is a *Compound Word* ? See Def. 55.
71. The *Elements* of a Compound Word are called what ?
 What is the *Basis* of a Compound Word ? See Def. 56.
 What is an *Adjunct* of a Compound Word ? See Def. 57.
 What is a *Prefix* ?—What is a *Suffix* ? See Def. 58–59.
72. What is a *Separable Radical* ? See Def. 60.
 What is an *Inseparable Radical* ? See Def. 61.

- PAGE
73. By their *uses*, how are Words distinguished?
 What is a *Noun*? See Def. 62.
 What are their *Classes*?
 What is a *Proper Noun*? Give Examples See Def. 63.
74. What is a *Common Noun*? Give Examples See Def. 64.
 What is an *Abstract Noun*? Give Examples See Def. 65.
 What is a *Collective Noun*? Give Examples See Def. 66.
 What is a *Verbal Noun*? Give Examples See Def. 67.
 What are the several *offices* of Nouns? See Obs. 3.
75. What other Words perform Substantive offices?
 Give Examples See Obs. 6.
76. How are Nouns *modified*?
 What Nouns and Pronouns are of the *Masculine Gender*? See Def. 69.
 What of the *Feminine Gender*?—of the *Neuter Gender*? See Def. 70–1.
 Are *all* Nouns modified by Gender? See Obs. 1–4.
77. How are the distinctions of Gender indicated?
78. What occasions the modifications of *Person*? See Rem.
 What Nouns and Pronouns are of the *First Person*? ... See Def. 72.
 What of the *Second Person*? Give Examples See Def. 73.
 What of the *Third Person*? Give Examples See Def. 74.
 What are the Modifications of *Number*?
 What Nouns are of the *Singular Number*? Give Exs. ... See Def. 75.
 What Nouns are of the *Plural Number*? Give Exs. ... See Def. 76.
 How are Numbers *indicated*? See Obs. 1.
79. What Nouns add *es* to form the Plural? See Obs. 2.
80. How are the Plurals of *Compound* Nouns formed? ... See Obs. 7, 8, 9.
81. What is said of the Plural forms of *Foreign Nouns*? ... See Obs. 15.
 Repeat the Exercises in Gender, *Person*, and *Number*,
 after the *Models* given.
82. What does the term *Case* indicate? See Rem. 2.
How many Cases in English Grammar?
83. When is a Noun or a Pronoun in the *Nominative Case*? ... See Def. 77.
 When is a Noun or a Pronoun in the *Possessive Case*? ... See Def. 78.
 How is the Possessive Case formed? See Obs. 1, 2, 3.
84. The term Possessive Case indicates what? See Obs. 4, 5.
 What *office* is commonly performed by the Possessive
 form of Words? See Obs. 6.
 When do Words, commonly used as Nouns and Pro-
 nouns, become *Adjuncts*? See Obs. 7.
 When is a Noun or a Pronoun in the *Objective Case*? ... See Def. 79.
 When is a Noun or a Pronoun in the *Independent*
Case? See Def. 79.

PAGE

85. What is said of the variations of Nouns to denote Cases?.....See Obs. 7.
86. When are Nouns of the *Possessive form* used *Substantively*?.....See Obs. 9.

PRONOUNS.

REM.—To avoid an unpleasant repetition of the same Word in a Sentence, a class of Words is introduced as *Substitutes for Names*. Hence,

DEF. 81.—A *Pronoun* is a Word used instead of a Noun.

Obs. 1.—As Pronouns are of general application, the Noun for which any given Pronoun is substituted, is commonly determined by the context—and, because it generally precedes the Pronoun, it is called its *Antecedent*.

Obs. 2.—The Antecedent of a Pronoun may be a Word, a Phrase, or Sentence.

EXAMPLES.

1. A *Word*.—"James has injured HIMSELF; HE has studied too much."
2. A *Phrase*.—"William's abandoning a good situation in hopes of a better, was never approved by me. It has been the prime cause of all his troubles"
3. A *Sentence*.—"I am glad that Charles has secured a liberal education. It is what few poor boys have the perseverance to accomplish."

CLASSIFICATION OF PRONOUNS.

REM.—Some Pronouns, by their forms, denote their modification of Gender, Person, Number, and Case.

Others *relate* directly to the Nouns for which they are used.

Others, in addition to their ordinary office, are used in *asking questions*.

Others describe the Names for which they are *substituted*. Hence,

Pronouns are distinguished as

<i>Personal,</i>	<i>Interrogative,</i> and
<i>Relative,</i>	<i>Adjective.</i>

PERSONAL PRONOUN.

DEF. 82.—A *Personal Pronoun* is a Pronoun whose *form* determines its Person and Number.

OBS.—The Personal Pronouns are *Simple* or *Compound*.

LIST.

Simple.—I, thou, you, he, she, it.
Compound.—Myself, thyself, yourself, himself, herself, itself.

MODIFICATION.

REM.—Whenever one Word is used in the place of another, it is properly subjected to the same laws as the other; this is true of Pronouns. Hence,

Pronouns have the same modifications of Gender, Person, Number, and Case, as Nouns.

REM.—To denote these several modifications, some Pronouns are varied in form. This variation of form is called Declension.

DECLENSION OF PRONOUNS.

1. SIMPLE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

FIRST PERSON.

<i>Nominative.</i>	<i>Possessive.</i>	<i>Objective.</i>	<i>Independent.</i>
<i>Singular</i> .—I,	my,	me,	I or me.*
<i>Plural</i> .—We,	our,	us,	we or us

SECOND PERSON.

<i>Singular</i> .—You,	your,	you,	you.
<i>Plural</i> .—You,	your,	you,	you.

SECOND PERSON.—*Sylvarm Style.*

<i>Singular</i> .—Thou,	thy,	thee,	thou or thee.
<i>Plural</i> .—Ye,	your,	you,	ye or you.

THIRD PERSON.—*Masculine.*

<i>Singular</i> .—He,	his,	him,	he or him.
<i>Plural</i> .—They,	their,	them,	they or them.

THIRD PERSON.—*Feminine.*

<i>Singular</i> .—She,	her,	her,	she or her.
<i>Plural</i> .—They,	their,	them,	they or them.

THIRD PERSON.—*Neuter.*

<i>Singular</i> .—It,	its,	it,	it.
<i>Plural</i> .—They,	their,	them,	they or them.

* Pronouns in the Independent Case commonly take the form of the Nominative, as, "O happy *they!*"—"Ah, luckless *he!*"—"It is *I!*" But they sometimes take the form of the Objective, as, "*Him* excepted."—"I found it to be *him.*"—"Ah *me!*"

OBS. 1.—From the above Paradigm, notice,

1. That Pronouns of the *Third Person Singular only* are varied to denote the *sex*.
2. That the Pronoun *you* is not varied to denote the *Number*.
This is a modern innovation ; but the idiom is too well established to yield to criticism or protest.
3. That the principal variations are made to distinguish the *Cases*.
4. That, to distinguish the PERSONS, *different words* are employed.

OBS. 2.—*Mine, thine, his, hers, ours, yours, and theirs*, are commonly used “to specify or otherwise describe Nouns and Pronouns” ; and when thus used, they are therefore *Adjectives*.* They are placed here to denote their *origin*, and to accommodate such teachers as, by force of habit, are inclined to call them Pronouns in all conditions. (See Possessive Specifying Adjectives, p. 99.)

OBS. 3.—*Mine, thine, his, hers, ours, yours, and theirs*, are sometimes used Substantively, *i. e.*, as the Subjects or the Objects of Sentences—the Objects of Phrases, or as Independent Substantives ; and when thus used, they are therefore *Substantives*. (See Adjective Pronouns.)

EXAMPLES.

Subject of a Sentence.—“ My sword and *yours* are kin.”—*Shakspeare*.

Object of a Sentence.—“ You seek your interests ; we follow *ours*.”

Object of a Phrase.—“ Therefore leave your forest of beasts for *ours* of brutes, called men.”—*Wesley to Pope*.

“ John is a friend of *mine*.”

Independent.—“ *Thine* is the kingdom.”

“ *Theirs* had been the vigor of their youth.”

OBS. 4.—The Pronoun *it* is often used indefinitely, and may have an Antecedent of the First, the Second, or the Third Person, of the Singular or of the Plural number ; and sometimes it has no antecedent.

EXAMPLES.—“ *It* is *I*.” “ Was *it* thou ? ”—Is *it* you ?

It was *John*.—Was *it* the boys ?

It snows.—*It* blows.—*It* seems.

OBS. 5.—That for which a Pronoun is used, may also be a Phrase or a Sentence.

EXAMPLES.

A Phrase.—1. “ *It* is good to be zealously affected in a good thing.”

A Sentence.—2. “ *It* remains that we speak of its moral effects.”

* See Webster's Grammar, p. 46.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

DEF. 83.—A *Relative Pronoun* is a Pronoun used to introduce a Sentence which qualifies its own antecedent.

- EXAMPLES.—1. The youth *who was speaking*, was applauded.
 2. We saw the man *whom you described*.
 3. "Mount the horse *which I have chosen for thee*."

OBS. 1.—In Example 1, "who" relates to "youth," and introduces the Auxiliary Sentence ("who was speaking"), whose office it is to describe "youth."

The word "who" not only introduces the Adjunct Sentence, but is also an Element in that Sentence—a Principal Element—the Subject.

In Example 2, "whom you described," is an Auxiliary Sentence, used to describe or point out a particular "man"; "*whom*" introduces that Adjective Sentence, is the *object* of "described," and relates to "man."

LIST.

The Words used as Relative Pronouns are, *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what*.

OBS. 2.—The Words *as* and *than* are sometimes, by ellipsis, used as Relative Pronouns.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "Such *as I have*, give I unto thee."
 2. "We have more *than heart could wish*."

But, generally, on supplying the ellipsis, we may make those words supply the offices of Prepositions or of Conjunctions. Thus,

1. "I give unto thee such [things] *as* [those which] I have."
 2. "We have more [things] *than* [those things which] heart could wish."

OBS. 3.—*Who* is varied in Declension to indicate the *Cases* only.

Which, *that*, and *what*, are not declined. But the word *whose* is also used as the Possessive of *which*.

<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Pos.</i>	<i>Obj.</i>	<i>Indep.</i>
Who,	Whose,*	Whom,	Who or whom.
Which,	Whose,	Which,	Which.
That,		That,	That.
What,		What,	What.

* *Whose* is always a definitive, attached to Nouns, and may relate to persons or to things; as, "Whose I am, and whom I serve."—"Whose body Nature is, and God the soul."

Obs. 4.—*Who* is applied to man, or to beings supposed to possess intelligence.

EXAMPLES.—He *who* studies will excel those *who* do not. “He *whom* sea-severed realms obey.”

Obs. 5.—*Which* and *what* are applied to brute animals and to things.

EXAMPLES.—The books *which* I lost.—The pen *which* I use, is good.—We value most *what* costs us most.

Obs. 6.—*That* is applied to man or to things.

EXAMPLE.—“Them *that* honor me, I will honor.”

Obs. 7.—*What*, when used as a Relative, is always compound; and is equivalent to *that which*, or the *things which*.

The two Elements of this Word never belong to the same Sentence; one part introduces a Sentence which qualifies the antecedent part of the same word.

“Our proper Bliss depends on what we blame.”

In this example, “*what*” is a Compound Relative, equivalent to the two words, *that which*. *That*, the Antecedent part, is the object of “on;” “*which*,” the Relative part, is the object of “blame.” The Auxiliary Sentence, “we blame *which*,” is used to qualify “*that*.” [See page 43, last Diagram.]

Obs. 8.—The Compounds, *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whichever*, *whichever*, *whatsoever*, and *whatsoever*, are construed similarly to *what*.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

DEF. 84.—An *Interrogative Pronoun* is a Pronoun used to ask a question.

EXAMPLES.—“*Who* will show us any good?”

“*Which* do you prefer?”

“*What* will satisfy him?”

LIST.

Obs. 1.—The Interrogative Pronouns are,

Who.....applied to man.

Which }applied to man or things.

What }

EXAMPLES.—1. *Who* was John the Baptist?

2. *Which* will you have?

3. *What* can compensate for loss of character?

OBS. 2.—A Sentence is made *Interrogative*.

1. By a transposition of the Principal Elements—the Predicate being placed before its Subject.

EXAMPLES.—*Will you go?*

“*Did Claudius waylay Milo?*”

2. By the use of an Interrogative Pronoun.

EXAMPLES.—“*What will a man give in exchange for his soul?*”

“*Who will show us any good?*”

3. By the use of Interrogative Adjectives or Adverbs.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Which book is yours?*

2. “*What evil hath he done?*”

3. “*How can ye escape?*”

4. “*Where shall we go?*”

5. “*Why will ye die?*”

OBS. 3.—The Antecedent—technically so called—of an Interrogative Pronoun, is the Word which answers the question.

EXAMPLES.—*Who gave the valedictory? Wheeler.*

Whom shall we obey? Our parents.

OBS. 4.—A Word which asks a question is to be construed as is the Word which answers it.

EXAMPLES.—*Who has the book? John [has the book].*

Whose book is it? [It is] William's [book].

“*William's*” describes “*book*”; hence an *Adjunct* of “*book*.”

“*Whose*” has the same construction; hence an *Adjunct* of “*book*.”

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

DEF. 85.—An *Adjective Pronoun* is a Definitive Word, used to supply the place of the Word which it limits.

EXAMPLE.—“*Some [] said one thing, and some, another*” [].

OBS. 1.—In this Example, “*some*” defines *people* (understood), and is, therefore, used Adjectively. It is substituted for the Word “*people*,” constituting the Subject of the Sentence; hence it is used Substantively. But the Substantive being the principal office, the Word is properly called a Pronoun. Its secondary office being Adjective, it is properly called an *Adjective Pronoun*.

Obs. 2.—An Adjective Pronoun always performs, at the same time, two distinct offices—an *Adjective* office and a *Substantive* office; and it may have, at the same time, an *Adjective* and an *Adverbial* Adjunct.

EXAMPLE.—“*The professedly* good are not always really so.”

“Good” describes people (understood), thus performing an *Adjective* office.

“Good” is the Subject of the Sentence; hence a *Substantive*.

As a *Substantive*, “good” is limited by the *Adjective* “*the*.”

As an *Adjective*, “good” is modified by the *Adverb*, “*professedly*.”

Obs. 3.—Words thus used are, by some grammarians, called “*Pronominal Adjectives*.” We prefer the term, “*Adjective Pronoun*,” because the *Principal* office is *Substantive*—the *Adjective* office being *secondary* in the structure of Sentences and of Phrases.

Obs. 4.—The following Words are often thus used:

All,	Former,	Neither,	Such,
Both,	Last,	None,	That,
Each,	Latter,	One,	These,
Either,	Least,	Other,	Those,
Few,	Less,	Several,	This.

Most specifying, and all qualifying *Adjectives* may be thus used:

EXAMPLES.—1. “*The good* alone are *great*.”

2. “*The poor* respect the *rich*.”

3. “One step from the *sublime* to the *ridiculous*.”

Obs. 5.—*Mine*, *thine*, *his*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, and *theirs*, are used—in common with other *Definitives*—*Substantively*, *i. e.*, as the *Representatives* of *Nouns*, which it is their primary office to specify. They are then properly called *Adjective Pronouns*.

EXAMPLES.—1. “He is a friend of *mine*.”

2. “*Thine* is the kingdom.”

3. “*Theirs* had been the vigor of his youth.”

PROMISCUOUS EXAMPLES OF ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

1. “*Brutus* and *Aruns* killed *each other*.”

2. “Thou shalt be *all in all*, and I in thee.”—*Milton*.

3. “They sat down in ranks, by *hundreds* and by *fifties*.”

4. “Teach me to feel *another's* woe, to hide the fault I see;

The mercy I to *others* show, that mercy show to me.”—*Pope*.

5. “Who are the *called*, according to his purpose.”

RECAPITULATION.

WORDS are distinguished by their.	}	Forms	and	Radical	{ Separable. Inseparable.
				Derivative ..	{ Prefix. Root. Suffix.
				Simple.	
				Compound..	{ Basis. Adjunct.
		Uses.....		Noun. Pronoun. Adjective. Verb. Adverb. Preposition. Conjunction. Exclamation.	
NOUNS are	}	Proper	or	Common.....	{ Concrete. Abstract. Collective. Verbal.
PRONOUNS are	}	Personal.			
		Relative.			
		Interrogative.			
		Adjective.			

MODIFICATION OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

NOUNS and PRONOUNS are modified by	}	Gender	Masculine.
			Feminine.
			Neuter.
		Person	First.
Second.			
Third.			
Number	Singular.		
	Plural.		
Case	Nominative.		
	Possessive.		
	Objective.		
	Independent.		

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

- PAGE
88. What is a *Pronoun*? See Def. 81
Why are Pronouns used? See Rem.
 What is an *Antecedent* of a Pronoun? See Obs. 1.
 Antecedents may *consist* of what? See Obs. 2.
Why are Pronouns *classified*? See Rem.
How are Pronouns *classified*?
 What is a *Personal Pronoun*? See Def. 82.
89. How are Personal Pronouns *distinguished*? See Obs.
 How are Pronouns *modified*?
 Decline the Personal Pronoun.
90. What Pronouns are varied in form to denote *Gender*? See Obs. 1.
 For what are the principal variations made? See Obs. 1.
 How do we distinguish the *Persons* of Pronouns? See Obs. 1.
 Why are Possessive Specifying Adjectives placed with
 Pronouns? See Obs. 2.
 When are *mine, thine, his, hers, ours, yours, and theirs* used
 as *Substantives*? and why? See Obs. 3.
 Make Sentences having each of these Words as *Subjects*
 —as *Objects*—as *Objects of Phrases*—in *Predicate*
 with a Verb.
 What may be some of the different Antecedents of it? See Obs. 4.
91. What is a *Relative Pronoun*? See Def. 83.
 Give the List of Relative Pronouns.
 What is said of the words *as* and *than*? See Obs. 2.
 Which of the Relative Pronouns are varied in form? See Obs. 3.
92. What are the peculiar uses of *who, which, and that*? See Obs. 4, 5, 6.
 What is there peculiar in the use of the Word *what*? See Obs. 7.
 What other Double Relatives have we? See Obs. 8.
 What is an *Interrogative Pronoun*? See Def. 84.
 Give the List of Interrogative Pronouns. See Obs. 1.
93. Sentences are made Interrogative—*how*? See Obs. 2.
 What is the *Antecedent* of an Interrogative Pronoun? See Obs. 3.
 An Interrogative Pronoun is to be constructed—*how*? See Obs. 5.
 What is an *Adjective Pronoun*? See Def. 85.
94. What *distinct offices* are performed by Adjective Pro-
 nouns? See Obs. 2.
Why is the term Adjective Pronoun given to this class
 of Words? See Obs. 3.
 Give the List of Words most frequently used as Adjec-
 tive Pronouns. See Obs. 4.

ADJECTIVES.

REM.—As things possess individuality, and have points of difference from each other, so we have Words which point out and describe those things, and mark their differences from other things. Hence,

DEF. 86.—An *Adjective* is a Word used to qualify or otherwise describe a Noun or a Pronoun.

EXAMPLES.—Good—amiable—the—our—earnest—falling—young—conscientious—correct—famous.

A good boy.

An amiable young lady.

Our national resources.

Falling leaves.

Conscientious Christian.

Correct expression.

CLASSIFICATION.

REM.—Adjectives are used—

1. To express a quality—as, *good boy—red rose—sweet apple.*
2. To specify or limit—as, *the book—thy pen—three boys.*
3. To express, incidentally, a condition, state, or act—as, *loving friend—wheeling orbs—injured reputation.* Hence

Adjectives are distinguished as—

Qualifying Adjectives,
Specifying Adjectives, and
Verbal Adjectives.

QUALIFYING ADJECTIVES.

DEF. 87.—A *Qualifying Adjective* is a Word used to describe a Substantive by expressing a quality.

EXAMPLES.—Good—sweet—cold—honorable—amiable—virtuous.

An honorable man.

An amiable disposition.

A virtuous woman.

Some good fruit.

Three sweet oranges.

Much cold water.

SPECIFYING ADJECTIVES.

DEF. 88.—A *Specifying Adjective* is a Word used to define or limit the application of a Substantive without denoting a quality.

EXAMPLES.—A—an—the—this—that—some—three—my.

A man of letters. |

That mountain in the distance.

An educated man. |

Some good fruit.

The question at issue. |

Three sweet oranges.

This road. |

My enemy.

OBS. 1.—Adjectives derived from Proper Nouns are called *Proper Adjectives*.

EXAMPLES.—Arabian—Grecian—Turkish—French.

OBS. 2.—*Which, what, and sometimes whose*, when used as Adjectives, are called *Interrogative Adjectives* when they indicate a question.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Which* side will you take?

2. *What* evil hath he done?

3. *Whose* book is that?

REM.—Adjectives may specify—

1. By simply pointing out things—by limiting or designating.

2. By denoting relation of ownership, adaptation, or origin.

3. By denoting number, definite or indefinite. Hence,

Specifying Adjectives are distinguished as—

Pure Adjectives,

Numeral Adjectives, and

Possessive Adjectives.

DEF. 89.—A *Pure Adjective* is a Word used only to point out or designate things.

EXAMPLES.—The—that—those—such—next—same—other.

Thou art *the* man. |

The *next* class.

That question is settled. |

The *same* lesson.

Those books are received. |

Other cares intrude.

“*Such* shames are common.” |

Any man may learn wisdom.

DEF. 90.—A *Possessive Adjective* is a Word that describes a being or thing by indicating a relation of ownership, origin, fitness, etc.

EXAMPLES. — My — our — their — whose — children's — John's — Teacher's.

My father—my neighbor.

Our enemies.

Their losses are severe.

Children's shoes.

John's horse.

Teacher's absence.

2. "O *my* offense is rank ; it smells to heaven ;

3. It hath the primal, eldest curse upon it,
A *brother's* murder."

4. "He heard the *king's* command, and saw that *writing's* truth."

NOTE.—A Possessive Adjective is generally derived from a Substantive, by changing the Nominative into the Possessive form.

Thus : "He heard the *king's* command," is equivalent to,
He heard the *command* of the king.

DEF. 91.—A *Numeral Adjective* is a Word used to denote *Number*.

EXAMPLES.—One—ten—first—second—fourfold—few—many

OBS. 1.—Numeral Adjectives may be,

Cardinal.—One—two—three—four.

Ordinal.—First—second—third—fourth.

Multiplicative.—Single—double—quadruple.

Indefinite.—Few—many—some (denoting number).

OBS. 2.—*A* and *an*, when they denote number, are to be classed as Numeral Adjectives.

EXAMPLES.—1. "Not *a* drum was heard, nor *a* funeral note."

Not *one* drum was heard.

2. "Not *an* instance is on record."

Not *one* instance is on record.

VERBAL ADJECTIVES.

DEF. 92.—A *Verbal Adjective* is a Word used to describe a Noun or a Pronoun, by expressing, incidentally, a condition, state, or act.

OBS.—This class of Adjectives consists of Participles, used primarily to describe Nouns and Pronouns.

- EXAMPLES.—1. A *running* brook.
 2. A *standing* pond.
 3. I saw a boy *running* to school.
 4. Another *standing* by the way.
 5. “*Scaling* yonder peak,
 I saw an eagle *wheeling* near its brow.”

In this example the Sentence is, “*I saw eagle:*” and “*scaling yonder peak,*” is a Phrase used to describe “*I.*” “*Wheeling near its brow,*” describes “*eagle.*” *Scaling* and *wheeling* are Participles used to describe a Noun and a Pronoun—hence they are, in their office, Adjectives. (See Def. 86.) They describe by expressing (not in the character of Predicates, but), “*incidentally, a condition, state, or act,*” of “*I*” and “*eagle*”—hence they are Verbal Adjectives.

REM. 1.—To render the classification more simple, I have preferred to class all Participles used *chiefly* to describe Nouns and Pronouns, as *Adjectives*—and, because they are derived from Verbs, and retain more or less of the properties of the Verbs from which they are derived, I use the term *Verbal Adjectives*.

But Teachers who are unwilling to do more than simply to call them Participles, will not find it difficult to adapt their views to the *plan* of this work ; the Pupil being taught that—

“*Participles, like Adjectives, belong to Nouns and Pronouns.*”

And, in the use of Diagrams—

“*Participles used to limit Substantives, occupy the same position as Adjectives.*”

REM. 2.—Participles used as Adjectives, commonly retain their verbal character, and, like their Verbs, may have Objects after them. Hence,

Verbal Adjectives are distinguished as *Transitive* and *Intransitive*.

EXAMPLES.

- Intransitive*.—1. “He possessed a *well-balanced* mind.”
 2. “Truth, *crushed* to earth, will rise again.”
Transitive.—3. “*Scaling* yonder peak, I saw an eagle.”
 4. “We saw the children *picking* berries.”

MODIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES.

REM.—Most Qualifying Adjectives express, by variations in form, different degrees of quality. Hence,

Some Adjectives are varied in form to denote
Comparison.

There may be four degrees of Comparison.

1. *Diminutive*.....bluish.....saltish.
2. *Positive*.....blue.....salt.
3. *Comparative*.....bluer.....salter.
4. *Superlative*.....bluest.....saltest.

DEF. 93.—The *Diminutive Degree* denotes an amount of the quality less than the Positive.

It is commonly formed by adding *ish* to the form of the Positive.

EXAMPLES.—Blueish—saltish.

DEF. 94.—The *Positive Degree* expresses quality in its simplest form, without a comparison.

EXAMPLES.—Large—pure—rich—good—glimmering.

DEF. 95.—The *Comparative Degree* expresses an increase or a decrease of the Positive.

It is commonly formed by adding *er*, or the Words *more* or *less*, to the form of the Positive.

- EXAMPLES.—1. Larger—purer—richer—more common—less objectionable.
2. “*Richer by far is the heart’s adoration.*”

DEF. 96.—The *Superlative Degree* expresses the greatest increase or decrease of the quality of the Adjective.

It is commonly formed by adding *est*, or the Words *most* or *least*, to the form of the Positive.

- EXAMPLES.—1. Largest—purest—most ungrateful—smallest—uppermost.
2. “*The purest treasure mortal times afford
Is—spotless reputation.*”

OBS. 1.—By the use of other Words, the degrees of Comparison may be rendered indefinitely numerous.

EXAMPLES.—Cautious—*somewhat* cautious—*very* cautious—*unusually* cautious—*remarkably* cautious—*exceedingly* cautious—*too little* cautious—*uncautious*—*quite uncautious*.

OBS. 2.—Comparison descending, is expressed by prefixing the Words *less* and *least* to the Adjective.

EXAMPLES.—Wise, *less* wise, *least* wise—ambitious, *less* ambitious, *least* ambitious.

OBS. 3.—Most Adjectives of two or more syllables are compared by prefixing the words *more* and *most*, or *less* and *least*, to the Positive.

EXAMPLES.

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Careful.....	<i>more</i> careful.....	<i>most</i> careful.
Careful.....	<i>less</i> careful.....	<i>least</i> careful.

OBS. 4.—Some Adjectives may be compared by either method specified above.

EXAMPLES.

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Remote.....	<i>remoter</i>	<i>remotest</i> .
Remote.....	<i>more</i> remote.....	<i>most</i> remote.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

Some Adjectives are irregular in comparison.

EXAMPLES.

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Good.....	better.....	best.
Bad.....	worse.....	worst.
Little.....	less.....	least.
Many.....	more.....	most.
Much.....	more.....	most.
Far.....	{ farther.....	farthest.
	{ further.....	furthermost.
Old.....	{ older.....	oldest.
	{ elder.....	eldest.

OBS. 5.—Some Adjectives want the Positive.

EXAMPLES.—1. After, aftermost—nether, nethermost.

2. “He was in the *after* part of the ship.”

OBS. 6.—Some Adjectives want the Comparative.

EXAMPLES.—1. Top, topmost.

2. “He stood upon the *topmost* round.”

OBS. 7.—Some Adjectives can not be compared—the qualities they indicate not being susceptible of increase or diminution.

EXAMPLES.—Round—square—triangular—infinite.

RECAPITULATION.

ADJECTIVES are distinguished as..	}	Qualifying	{ Superlative. Comparative. Positive. Diminutive
		Specifying	{ Pure. Numeral. Possessive.
		Verbal.....	{ Transitive. Intransitive.

EXERCISES.

Let the Pupil determine which of the following Adjectives are Qualifying, which are Specifying, and which are Verbal. Of the Qualifying Adjectives, which can be compared, and how compared—of the Specifying Adjectives, which are Pure, which Numeral, and which Possessive—of the Verbal, which are Transitive and which are Intransitive.

Able,	False,	That,	Forgotten,
Bold,	Good,	Three,	Standing,
Capable,	Honest,	Tenth,	Loving,
Doubtful,	Infinite,	Twice,	Admonished,
Eager,	Just,	Several,	Unknown.

Let the Pupil point out the Adjectives, Nouns, and Pronouns in the following Sentences, and name their classes and modifications. Let him be careful to give a reason for the classification and modification of each, by repeating the appropriate definitions and observations.

1. *Good* scholars secure the *highest* approbation of *their* teacher.
2. *Some* men do not give *their* children a *proper* education.
3. A trifling accident often produces great results.
4. An ignorant rich man is less esteemed than a wise poor man.
5. The richest treasure mortal times afford, is, spotless reputation.
6. "These dim vaults,
These winding aisles, of human pomp or pride,
7. Report not. No fantastic carvings show
The boast of our vain race, to change the form
8. Of thy fair works. Thou art in the soft winds
That run along the summits of these trees
9. In music : thou art in the cooler breath,
That, from the inmost darkness of the place,
10. Comes, scarcely felt ; the barky trunks, the ground,
The fresh, moist ground, are all instinct with thee."

FIRST MODEL.

These . . . describes " vaults ;" hence an Adjective—for " a Word used to qualify or otherwise describe a Noun or a Pronoun, is an Adjective."

" . . . Specifies ; hence Specifying—for " an Adjective used only to limit, is a Specifying Adjective."

Dim qualifies " vaults ;" hence an Adjective—for " a Word used to qualify or otherwise describe a Noun or a Pronoun, is an Adjective."

" . . . Expresses a quality ; hence Qualifying—for " a Word used to describe a Noun by expressing a quality, is a Qualifying Adjective."

Vaults . . . is a Name ; hence a Noun—for " the Name of a being, place, or thing, is a Noun."

" . . . Name of a sort or class ; hence common—for " a Name used to designate a class or sort of beings, places, or things, is a Common Noun."

" . . . Spoken of ; hence, Third Person—for " the Name of a person or thing spoken of, is of the Third Person."

" . . . Denotes more than one ; hence Plural Number—for " Nouns denoting more than one, are of the Plural Number "

" . . . Subject of the Sentence ; hence Nominative Case—for " the subject of a Sentence is in the Nominative Case."

Winding describes " aisles ;" hence an Adjective—for " a Word used

to qualify or otherwise describe a Noun or a Pronoun, is an Adjective."

Winding describes, by expressing a condition; hence Verbal—for "a Word used to describe a Noun by expressing, incidentally, a condition, state, or act, is a Verbal Adjective."

Human . . . describes "pomp" or "pride;" hence an Adjective—for "a Word used to qualify or otherwise describe a Noun or a Pronoun, is an Adjective."


" . . . Expresses a quality; hence Qualifying—for "a Word used to describe a Noun by expressing a quality, is a Qualifying Adjective."

[It is profitable to repeat the Definitions until they become familiar; after that they may be omitted—the parts of speech and the classes and modifications of the several Words being simply named, as in the following exercise.]

SECOND MODEL.

"No fantastic carvings show
The boast of our vain race, to change the form
Of thy fair works."

		<i>Class.</i>	<i>Person.</i>	<i>Number.</i>	<i>Case.</i>
No	is an Adjective	Specifying,	—	—	limits "carvings."
Fantastic	" Adjective	Qualifying,	—	—	qualifies "carvings."
Carvings	" Noun	Common,	Third,	Plu.	Nom. to "show."
The	" Adjective	Specifying,	—	—	limits "boast."
Boast	" Noun	Common,	Third,	Sing.	Obj. of "show."

 The Teacher will abridge or extend these Exercises at pleasure. Then let four Sentences be made, each containing the Word *good*, so that, in the first, it will qualify the Subject—in the second, the Object—in the third, the Object of a Phrase attached to the Subject—in the fourth, the Object of a Phrase attached to the Object.

In like manner use the Words *amiable—honest—industrious—wise—this—some—loving—loved*. Thus,

- 1 That *amiable* young lady was at the lecture.
2. We saw the *amiable* gentleman.
3. The benefits of an *amiable* disposition are numerous.
4. She possesses the advantages of an *amiable* temper.

ADJECTIVE PHRASES AND SENTENCES.

REM.—Things may be described not only by *Words*, but also by *Phrases* and by *Sentences*.

EXAMPLES.

Adjective Phrases.—1. "THE TIME of my departure is at hand."

2. "Night is the TIME for rest."

3. "Turn, gentle HERMIT of the vale."

Adjective Sentences.—1. "HE that getteth wisdom, loveth his own soul."

2. Mount the HORSE which I have chosen for thee.

3. "THOU, whose spell can raise the dead,
Bid the prophet's form appear."

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

- PAGE
97. What is an *Adjective*? See Def. 86.
 Why are Adjectives used? See Rem. 1.
 For what various purposes are Adjectives used? See Rem. 2.
 How are Adjectives distinguished?
 What is a *Qualifying* Adjective? See Def. 87.
98. What is a *Specifying* Adjective? See Def. 88.
 What is a *Proper* Adjective? See Obs. 1.
 What is an *Interrogative* Adjective? See Obs.
 How are Specifying Adjectives distinguished?
 What is a *Pure* Specifying Adjective? See Def. 89.
99. What is a *Possessive* Specifying Adjective? See Def. 90.
 How are Possessive Adjectives formed? See Note.
 What is a *Numeral* Adjective? See Def. 91.
 What is a *Verbal* Adjective? See Def. 92.
100. How are Verbal Adjectives distinguished?
101. How are Adjectives modified?
 How many Degrees of Comparison may some Adjectives have?
 When is an Adjective of the *Diminutive* form? See Def. 93.
 When is an Adjective of the *Positive* form? See Def. 94.
 When is an Adjective of the *Superlative* form? See Def. 96.
102. What is said of Comparison *descending*? See Obs. 2.
 When do we *prefix* a Word to denote Comparison? See Obs. 3.
 What Adjectives are compared *irregularly*?
103. Are *all* Adjectives compared? See Obs. 7.

VERBS.

REM.—As all things in the universe *live, move, or have a being*, we necessarily have a class of Words used to express the *act, being, or state* of those things. Hence,

DEF. 97.—A *Verb* is a Word used to express the act, being, or state of a person or thing.

CLASSIFICATION.

REM.—The act expressed by some Verbs *passes over* to an Object. Hence,

Verbs are distinguished as

Transitive or Intransitive.

DEF. 98.—A Verb is *Transitive* when it expresses an action which terminates on an Object.

EXAMPLES.—John *saws wood*—God *created heaven and earth*.

DEF. 99.—A Verb is *Intransitive* when it expresses the being or state of its Subject, or an action which does not terminate on an Object.

EXAMPLES.—Animals *run*—I *sit*—John *is sleepy*.

OBS. 1.—Some Verbs are used transitively or intransitively.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "Cold *blows* the wind."
 2. "The wind *blows* the dust."
 3. "It has *swept* through the earth."
 4. "Jane has *swept* the floor."
 5. "God *moves* in a mysterious way."
 6. "Such influences do not *move* me."

DEF. 100.—The Verbs *be, become*, and other Intransitive Verbs, whose Subjects are not represented as performing action, are called *Neuter Verbs*.

EXAMPLES.—He *is*—God *exists*—We *become* wise—They *die*.

LIST.

OBS.—The Verbs commonly called Neuter are—*appertain—be—become—belong—exist—lie—rest—seem—sleep.*

MODIFICATION OF VERBS.

REM.—Verbs that denote action, have two methods of representing the action.

1st—As done *by* its Subject—as, Clara *loves* Anna.

2d—As done *to* its Subject—as, Anna *is loved by* Clara.

Hence,

Transitive Verbs have two *Voices*—

The *Active* and the *Passive*.

DEF. 101.—A Verb in the *Active Voice* represents its Subject as performing an action.

EXAMPLE.—Columbus *discovered* America.

DEF. 102.—A Verb in the *Passive Voice* represents its Subject as being acted upon.

EXAMPLE.—America *was discovered* by Columbus.

OBS. 1.—The same fact may commonly be expressed by either the Active or the Passive form.

EXAMPLES.—William *assists* Charles.

Charles *is assisted* by William. } The same fact stated.

“William,” the Subject of the Active Verb, becomes the Object of “by,” when the Verb becomes Passive; and “Charles,” the Object of the Active Verb, becomes the Subject of the Passive.

OBS. 2.—In the English language, the formation of the Passive Voice is less simple than in many other languages. Thus, the corresponding assertions,

IN LATIN.—*Doceo*, in the Active Voice, has *Doceor* in the Passive.

IN ENGLISH.—*I teach*, “ “ “ “ *I am taught* “ “

Hence, the English Verb does not form its Passive Voice by an “inflection of the form of the Active,” but by combining the Verb *be*, in its various modifications, with a Participle of the given Verb.

EXAMPLES.

Active.—To see, I love, They applaud, Man worships,
Passive.—To be seen, I am loved, They are applauded, God is wor-
 shipped.

Obs. 3.—Most Transitive Verbs may take the Passive form.

Obs. 4.—A Verb taking the Passive form, becomes grammatically intransitive. The action is directed to no Object. The Subject receives the action.

Obs. 5.—But few Intransitive Verbs take the Passive form.

EXAMPLES.

1. We *laughed* at his clownish performances.—(Active Intrans.)
2. His clownish performance *was laughed at*.—(Passive.)

MODE.

REM.—In addition to their primary signification, Verbs perform a secondary office—*i. e.*, they indicate some attendant or qualifying circumstances. This is indicated by the variations of the form of the Verb, or by prefixing Auxiliary Words.

1. A Verb may simply express a fact.
2. It may express a fact as *possible, probable, obligatory, etc.*
3. It may express a fact *conditionally*.
4. It may express a *command* or *request*.
5. It may express the *name* of an act, or a fact unlimited by a Subject. Hence,

Verbs have five modes of expressing their signification—

The <i>Indicative</i> ,		The <i>Subjunctive</i> ,
The <i>Potential</i> ,		The <i>Imperative</i> , and
The <i>Infinitive</i> .		

DEF. 103.—A Verb used simply to indicate or assert a fact, is in the

Indicative Mode.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "God *created* the heaven and the earth."
 2. "Rays of limpid light *gleamed* round their path."

DEF. 104.—A Verb indicating *probability, power, will,* or *obligation,* of its Subject, is in the

Potential Mode.

OBS.—Words which may be regarded as signs of the Potential Mode, are, *may—might—can—could—must—shall—should—will—would,* either alone, or followed by the Word *have.*

EXAMPLES.—I *may go*—You *might have gone*—John *should study*—Mary *can learn*—It *could not be done*—John *shall study.*

OBS.—Verbs in the *Indicative* and the *Potential* Modes may be used in Interrogative Sentences. (See p. 93.)

EXAMPLES.—1. “*Did Claudius waylay Milo?*”

2. “*May one be pardoned and retain the offense?*”

DEF. 105.—A Verb expressing a fact conditionally (hypothetically) is in the

Subjunctive Mode.

EXAMPLE.—“If he *repent,* forgive him.”

OBS.—*If, though, unless,* and other Conjunctions, are commonly used with the Subjunctive Mode. But they are not to be regarded as the signs of this Mode, for they are also used with the Indicative and with the Potential.

EXAMPLES.—1. If the boat *goes* to-day, I shall go in it.

2. I *would* stay, if I *could* conveniently.

The condition expressed by “if the boat goes,” is assumed as a fact—hence, “goes” is in the Indicative Mode.

NOTE.—The Subjunctive Mode is limited to Auxiliary Sentences.

DEF. 106.—A Verb used to command or entreat is in the

Imperative Mode.

EXAMPLES.—1. “If he *repent,* forgive him.”

2. “*Come* to the bridal chamber, Death!”

OBS.—As we can command only a person or thing addressed, the subject of an Imperative Verb must be of the Second Person; and, as a person addressed is supposed to be present to the speaker, the name of the Subject is usually understood.

EXAMPLES.—*Cry* aloud—*spare* not.

But it is often expressed.

“Go *ye* into all the world.”

DEF. 107.—A Verb used without limitation by a Subject, is in the

Infinitive Mode.

OBS. 1.—The Preposition *to*, is usually placed before the Infinitive Verb.

EXAMPLES.—1. “*To* enjoy is *to* obey.”

2 “I came not here *to* talk.”

OBS. 2.—But that Word is sometimes suppressed. (See p. 269).

EXAMPLE.—“Let me hear thy voice, awake, and bid her
Give me new and glorious hopes.”

OBS. 3.—As a Verb in the Infinitive has no grammatical Subject, it can not be a Predicate. It is used, in combination with its Preposition,

1. Substantively; as—*To do good* is the duty of all.

2. Adjectively; as—The way *to do good*.

3. Adverbially; as—I ought *to do good*.

PARTICIPLES. †

REM.—In the three Sentences,

1. Birds *sing*,

2. Birds are *singing*,

3. *Singing* birds delight us,

the Word “*sing*” (in Example 1) is a Verb—used to assert an act of “birds.”

In Example 2, “*singing*” is derived from the same Verb; and *with the aid of the Auxiliary Verb* “are,” it makes the same assertion.

In Example 3, “*singing*” does not *assert*, but it *assumes* the same act.

The same signification remains in the three Words, while they perform different grammatical offices. Hence,

DEF. 108.—A *Participle* is a Word derived from a Verb, retaining the signification of its Verb, while it also performs the office of some other “part of speech.”

OBS.—Participles are Derivative Words, formed from their Radicals—commonly by the addition of *ing* or *ed*.

EXAMPLES.—Be being.

Love loving loved.

Have . . . having.

Walk . . . walking . . . walked.

REM.—A Participle is used with or without an Auxiliary prefixed. Hence,

Participles are $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{Simple} \textit{ or} \\ \textit{Compound}. \end{array} \right.$

DEF. 109.—A *Simple Participle* is a single Word derived from its Verb.

EXAMPLES.—Loving, loved—having, had—being, been.

DEF. 110.—A *Compound Participle* consists of a simple Participle, with the Auxiliary Participles “having” or “being,” or “having been.”

EXAMPLES.

<i>Simple</i>	{	1. Loving	Fearing.
		2. Loved	Feared.
<i>Compound</i>	{	3. Being loved	Being feared.
		4. Having loved	Having feared.
		5. Having been loved	Having been feared.
		6. Having been loving	Having been fearing.

REM. 1.—In giving names to the different Participles, grammarians are not agreed. By different authors the Simple Participles are distinguished as *Present* and *Past*,

“ *Active* and *Passive*,

“ *Imperfect* and *Perfect*,

“ *First* and *Second*, and by other terms.

REM. 2.—While none of the above names can be regarded as wholly free from imperfections, those first mentioned are perhaps less objectionable than others. Hence,

Participles are distinguished as

1. *Present*,
2. *Prior Present*,
3. *Past*.

DEF. 111.—The *Present Participle* is the Participle formed by adding *ing* to the root of the Verb, and commonly indicates a present act, being, or state.

EXAMPLES.—Being—having—loving—walking—doing—fearing.

OBS.—When the Participle is used with a Verb, the *time* is indicated by the *Verb*, and may be Present, Past, or Future.

EXAMPLES.—*Present*.—I am writing letters.

Past.—I was writing letters.

Future.—I shall be writing letters.

DEF. 112, *a*.—A *Past Participle* is the Participle that is regularly formed by adding *ed* to the root of its Verb.

EXAMPLES.—Loved—feared—hated—respected.

OBS. 1.—The Past Participles of Irregular Verbs are variously formed [See List.]

OBS. 2.—The Past Participle may be used with a Verb indicating time, *Present*, *Past*, or *Future*.

EXAMPLES.—*Present*.—I am loved. William is seen.

Past.—I was loved. William was seen.

Future.—I shall be loved. William will be seen.

OBS. 3.—The Present Participle is commonly *Active* in signification.

EXAMPLES.—1. A *falling* leaf.—2. A *fading* flower.

3. "Scaling yonder peak,
I saw an eagle, *wheeling* near its brow."

OBS. 4.—The Past Participle is commonly *Passive* in signification.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Injured* reputation.—2. *Lost* opportunity.

3. "Truth *crushed* to earth, will rise again."

OBS. 5.—A Participle of an Active Verb, preceded by the Auxiliary *having*, is used actively.

EXAMPLES.—1. Having loved.—2. Having lost a day.

3. "The hour *having arrived*, we commenced the exercises."

4. *Having seen* the elephant, the rustic was satisfied.

OBS. 6.—Preceded by the Auxiliary *being*, or *having been*, the Past Participle is used passively.

EXAMPLES.—1. Being loved.

2. Having been censured for idleness, John resolved to be diligent.

REM.—The above and similar combinations of the Present Participle with the Past, indicate *Prior Present Tense*. Hence,

DEF. 112, *b*.—A *Prior Present Participle* is a Participle compounded of a Present and a Past Participle.

OBS. 7. A Compound Participle may be *Present* or *Prior Present*—*Active* or *Passive*.

EXAMPLES.—	<i>Present.</i> —	Being loved	Being seen.
	<i>Prior Present.</i> —	Having loved	Having seen.
	<i>Active.</i> {	Having loved	Having seen.
		Having been walking	Having been seeing.
	<i>Passive.</i> {	Being loved	Being seen.
		Having been loved	Having been seen.

OBS. 8.—The term *Participle* is given to these words because they *participate* in the offices of two “parts of speech” at the same time:—that of the *Verbs* from which they are derived, and also of *Nouns*, of *Adjectives*, of *Adverbs*, of *Prepositions*, of *Conjunctions*—in *Predicate* with Auxiliary Verbs, or to introduce *Participial Phrases*.

EXAMPLES.

- Noun* (a). *Singing* is a pleasing exercise.
(b). William maintains a fair *standing* in society.
(c). “In the *beginning*, God created the heaven.”
- Adjective*. (d). A *running* BROOK—a *standing* TREE.
(e). Behold the GOOSE *standing* on one foot.
- Adverb*. (f). “’Tis strange ; ’tis *passing* STRANGE.”
(g). The task was *exceedingly* DIFFICULT.
- Preposition* (h). “I speak *concerning* Christ and the Church.
(i). “Nothing was said *touching* that question.”
- Conjunction*. (k). “*Seeing* we can not agree, the discussion may be dropped.”
- Exclamation*. (l). *Shocking!* *Astonishing!*
- In Predicate*. (m). “Birds are *singing*—bees are *humming*.”
- Leader of Phrase*. (n). *Wounding* the feelings of others.
(o). “Avoid *wounding* the feelings of others.”
(p). A habit of *moving* quickly, is another way of *gaining* time.

OBS. 9.—Participles, like the Verbs from which they are derived, are *Transitive* or *Intransitive*.

OBS. 10.—A Participle used as a Preposition, *must* be *Transitive*.

EXAMPLE.—“I speak *concerning* Christ and the Church.”

OBS. 11.—A Participle used as a Noun, as an Adjective, or in Predicate, or as the Leader of a Participial Phrase, *may* be *Intransitive* or *Transitive*.

EXAMPLES.

(a) *Intransitive.*

1. *Noun* “ *Scolding* has long been considered ungenteel.
2. *Adjective* “ The curfew tolls the knell of *parting* day.”
3. *Predicate* “ Spring-time of year is *coming*.”

(b) *Transitive.*

4. *Teaching* Clara, is a pleasing occupation.
5. “ *Scaling* yonder peak, I saw an eagle.”
6. We are *studying* grammar.

Obs. 12.—A Participle used as a Conjunction or as an Adverb *must* be Intransitive.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “ Wherefore is there a price in the hands of a fool to get wisdom, *seeing* he hath no heart to it.”
2. “ A virtuous household, but *exceeding* poor.”

TENSE.

REM.—Generally the form of the Verb denotes not only the *manner*, but also the *time*, of the action or event expressed by it. Hence the distinction of Tense.

DEF. 113.—Tense is a modification of Verbs, denoting distinction of *time*.

REM.—Time is *Present*, *Past*, or *Future*: of each of these periods we have two varieties, represented by different forms. Hence,

Most Verbs have six Tenses—

Prior Past and *Past*,
Prior Present and *Present*,
Prior Future and *Future*.

DEF. 114.—A Verb in the *Prior Past Tense* denotes time past at some other past time mentioned, or implied.

EXAMPLE.—I *had* already expressed my opinion.

Obs.—*Had*, prefixed to a Participle, is usually the sign of this Tense.

DEF. 115.—A Verb in the *Past Tense* denotes time fully past.

EXAMPLES.—I *wrote* you a letter.—We *walked* to Troy.
I *saw* an eagle.—David *loved* Jonathan

OBS.—In Regular Verbs, the *sign* of this Tense is *d* or *ed* added to the root of the Verb.

In Irregular Verbs, a distinct form is used. [See List.]

DEF. 116.—The *Prior Present Tense* denotes time past, but in a period reaching to the present.

EXAMPLES.—I *have completed* my task.—John *has returned*.
Mary *has been prospered*.—Thou *hast destroyed* thyself.

OBS.—*Have, hast, and has*, are the *signs* of this Tense.

DEF. 117.—The *Present Tense* denotes time present.

EXAMPLES.—Eliza *studies*.—Ellen *is reading*.—Clara *can sing*.
Do you hear that bell?—Emily *may write* that diagram.

OBS. 1.—This is the simplest form of the Verb—the sign *do* is used to denote intensity, and in asking questions.

OBS. 2.—Present Tense may be—

1. *Definite*—as, I am writing.—William *studies*.
2. *Indefinite*—as, Virtue is commendable.

DEF. 118.—The *Prior Future Tense* denotes time past, as compared with some future time specified.

EXAMPLE.—We *shall have finished* this recitation before the next class will come.

OBS.—*Shall have* and *will have*, are the *signs* of this Tense.

DEF. 119.—The *Future Tense* denotes future time, as compared with the present.

EXAMPLE.—James *will return* to-morrow—I *shall see* him.

OBS.—*Shall*, in the First Person, and *will*, in the Second and Third, are the *signs* of this Tense.

REM.—Distinctions of time are not indicated with precision by the form of the Verb. This must be done by the use of Adjuncts.

In the Potential Mode, the Tenses are quite Indefinite—one form being often used for another. [See p. 122.]

The same remarks will apply to Participles—to the Infinitive, to the Subjunctive, and sometimes to the Indicative Mode.

RECAPITULATION.

VERB.	{ TRANSITIVE.	{ ACTIVE.	{	<i>Indicative</i> . .	{ Prior Past, Past, Prior Present, Present, Prior Future, Future.		
		{ PASSIVE.				<i>Potential</i> . . .	{ Prior Past, Past, Prior Present, Present.
	{ INTRANSITIVE.	{ ACTIVE.		<i>Subjunctive</i> .	{ Past, Present.		
		{ NEUTER.				<i>Imperative</i> .	Present.
				{	<i>Infinitive</i> . . .		
						{	<i>Participle</i> . .

EXERCISES.

Let each Verb and Participle in the following Exercises be pointed out, and its Class and Modification given.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. I wrote.
2. Thou art reading.
3. James may recite.
4. Mary can study.
5. Joining the multitude.
Accustomed to study.
13. It is pleasant to ride in a sail-boat.
14. We are all fond of singing.
15. Some are accustomed to sing by note.
16. The young ladies ought to have attended the lecture.
17. By teaching others, we improve ourselves.
18. Being accustomed to study, we can learn that lesson easily.
19. Having been censured for idleness, John has resolved to be diligent.
20. By endeavoring to please all, we fail to please any. | 7. Willing to be taught.
8. Having seen the teacher.
9. Retire.
10. Let us alone.
11. Permit me to go
12. Let me go. |
|---|---|

21. "To be or not to be—that is the question."
22. "Spirit! I feel that thou
Wilt soon depart!
23. This body is too weak longer to hold
The immortal part.
24. The ties of earth are loosening—
25. They will soon break ;
26. And thou, even as a joyous bird,
Thy flight will take
To the eternal world."
27. Go forth when midnight winds are high,
And ask them whence they come ;
28. Who sent them raging through the sky,
29. And where is their far home!
30. "Mark the sable woods,
That shade sublime yon mountain's nodding brow.
31. With what religious awe, the solemn scene
Commands your steps.
32. As if the reverend form
Of Minos or of Numa should forsake
The Elysian seats, and, down the embowering glades,
Move to your pausing eye."
33. "In the pleased infant, see its power expand,
When first the coral fills his little hand ;
34. Throned in his mother's lap, it dries each tear,
As her sweet legend falls upon his ear ;
35. Next it assails him in his top's strange hum,
Breathes in his whistle, echoes in his drum ;
36. Each gilded toy that-doting love bestows,
He longs to break, and every spring expose."
37. "Could I forget
What I have been, I might the better bear
What I am destined to.
38. I am not the first
That has been wretched but to think how much
I have been happier."
39. "Truth crushed to earth, will rise again ;
40. The eternal years of God are hers :
41. But Error, wounded, writhes in pain,
And dies amid her worshipers."

Let the Verbs and Participles on the preceding page be parsed according to the following

MODEL.

- Crushed. is [a *Participle*, from the Verb *crush* ;] used here to describe a condition of "Truth ;" hence, a Verbal Adjective.
- Will rise asserts an act of "Truth ;" hence, a Verb.
 " has no object ; hence, Intransitive.
 " simply declares ; hence, Indicative Mode.
 " denotes time future ; hence, Future Tense.
- Are asserts being of "years ;" hence, a Verb.
 " has no object ; hence, Intransitive.
 " simply declares ; hence, Indicative Mode.
 " denotes time present ; hence, Present Tense.
- Wounded. is [a *Participle*, from the Verb *wound* ;] used here to describe a condition of "Error ;" hence, a Verbal Adjective.
- Writhes. asserts an act of "Error ;" hence, a Verb.
 " has no object ; hence, Intransitive.
 " simply declares ; hence, Indicative Mode.
 " denotes time present ; hence, Present Tense.

"The surging billows and the gamboling storms
Come crouching to his feet."

- Surging. is [a *Participle*, from the Verb *surge* ;] used here to describe "billows ;" hence, a Verbal Adjective.
- Gamboling is [a *Participle*, from the Verb *gambol* ;] used here to describe "storms ;" hence, a Verbal Adjective.
- Come asserts an act of "billows" and "storms ;" hence, a Verb.
 " has no object ; hence Intransitive.
 " simply declares ; hence, Indicative Mode.
 " denotes time present ; hence, Present Tense.
- Crouching is [a *Participle*, from the Verb *crouch* ;] used here to modify the act expressed by "come ;"
 " (it declares the *manner of coming* ;) hence, an Adverb *by representation*. [See p. 249, Obs. 5.]

"In the beginning, God created the heaven and the earth."

- Beginning is [a *Participle*, from the Verb *begin* ;] used here as the *name* of an event ; hence, a Verbal Noun.
- Created asserts an act of "God ;" hence, a Verb.
 " act passes to objects (heaven and earth)—Transitive.
 " simply declares ; hence, Indicative Mode.
 " denotes a particular time past ; hence, Past Tense.

CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

REMARK 1.—We have seen that most verbs are varied in form to denote different *modes* and *times* of action or being.

They are also varied to correspond with their subjects in *Person* and *Number*.

The regular arrangement of the various forms of a Verb is called its *Conjugation*.

REM. 2.—Verbs are varied by inflection of their Radicals, or by the use of different Radicals. Hence, in their methods of Conjugation,

Verbs are distinguished as

Regular and *Irregular*.

REGULAR VERBS.

DEF. 120.—A Verb whose Past Tense is formed by the addition of *ed* to the Radical, is *Regular* in Conjugation.

EXAMPLES.—*Present Tense*.—I love, act, save, fear.

Past Tense.—I loved, acted, saved, feared.

OBS. 1.—Some Verbs, for euphony, drop the final letter of the Radical.

EXAMPLES.—Love, loved.—Save, saved.—Recite, recited.

OBS. 2.—Some Verbs, for euphony, double a final letter of the Radical.

EXAMPLES.—Tan, tanned.—Transmit, transmitted.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

DEF. 121.—A Verb whose Past Tense is not made by the addition of *d* or *ed* to the Radical, is *Irregular* in Conjugation.

EXAMPLES.—*Present Tense*.—I am, see, do, hide, lay.

Past Tense.—I was, saw, did, hid, laid.

REM.—Some Irregular Verbs are not used in all the Modes and Tenses; Hence,

DEF. 122.—A *Defective Verb* is a Verb that is not used in all the Modes and Tenses.

LIST.

Present—Can, may, must, ought, shall, will.
Past.—Could, might, — ought, quoth, should, would.

REM.—We have seen [see Part I., p. 26]—

1. That the *Predicate* of a Sentence must have at least one *Verb*.
2. That it may have other Words.
3. That in Predicates formed of more than one Word, the last Word constitutes the *Principal Part* of the Predicate, *i. e.*, makes the *Principal Assertion*.
4. That the *Principal Part* of a Predicate may be—
 A *Verb*.—I love.—I do see.
 A *Participle*.—I am loved.—I have seen.
 An *Adjective*.—John is weary.—Velvet feels smooth.
 A *Noun*.—We are friends.—He is a scholar.
 A *Pronoun*.—It is I.—Thine is the kingdom.
5. That the Words prefixed to the *Principal Part* are *Auxiliaries*, and may be *Verbs* only, or *Verbs* and *Participles*. Hence,

DEF. 123.—An *Auxiliary Verb* is a Verb that is prefixed to another Verb or to a Participle, to distinguish the *Voice*, *Mode*, or *Tense* of the *Principal Verb*.

LIST.

Always Auxiliaries.

Present.—Can, may, must, shall.
Past.—Could, might, — should.

Sometimes Principal Verbs.

Present.—Am, be, do, have, will.
Past.— — was, did, had, would.

OBS.—These Words, when used as *Auxiliaries*, perform peculiar offices, thus,

Be, with its various modifications, is used before a *Past Participle* to indicate the *Passive Voice*.

Can, may, must, shall (used to command), and *will* (signifying volition), indicate the Present Tense of the *Potential Mode*.

Could, might, should, and would, are the signs of the Past Tense *Potential*.

<i>Do</i>	is used in the	<i>Present Tense</i> ,	Indicative-intensive form.
<i>Did</i>	“	“ <i>Past Tense</i> ,	“ “ “
<i>Had</i>	“	“ <i>Prior Past Tense</i> ,	“
<i>Have</i>	“	“ <i>Prior Present Tense</i> ,	<i>Indicative</i> .
<i>May have</i>	“	“ <i>Prior Present Tense</i> ,	<i>Potential</i> .
<i>Might have</i>	“	“ <i>Prior Past Tense</i> ,	“
<i>Shall</i>	“	“ <i>Future, Indicative</i>	<i>(First Person)</i> .
<i>Will</i>	“	“ <i>Future Indicative</i>	<i>(Second or Third Person)</i> .

NOTE.—The Future and the Prior Future Tenses are placed in the Indicative Mode in conformity to the general custom of grammarians. A strict regard to uniformity and consistency would place them with their kindred forms in the *Potential Mode*. For,

The “*Indicative Mode* is that form of the Verb used to *indicate* or *assert* an act, being, or state.” Now a thing *future* may be predicted, but can not be declared or asserted. We may declare a *purpose* or make a *prediction*. So may we declare the *possibility* of an act, or the *obligation* to perform an act. But these are done by a modification of the Predicate, called *Potential Mode*.

In the Sentence “I shall go,” we have asserted a prediction of an act.
 “ “ “I may go,” we have asserted a probability of an act.
 “ “ “I can go,” we have asserted a possibility of an act.

“I should go,” asserts obligation to perform an act.

“I might go,” asserts liberty to perform an act.

“I could go,” asserts power to perform an act.

Neither of the above assertions declares the performance of an act. They assert “*probability, power, will, or obligation*,” but no actual event.

The Potential *Present* and *Past* alike assert a *present* probability, prediction, possibility, etc., of a *future* act or event.

“I shall go if I choose,”	} all refer to a future act.
“I may go if I will,”	
“I can go if I will,”	
“I should go if I were invited,”	
“I might go if I were invited,”	
“I could go if I were invited,”	

EXERCISES.

Showing the peculiar uses of Auxiliary Verbs.

(1.)

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.				
	<i>Auxiliaries.</i>			<i>Principal.</i>	
	2	3	4	5	
I	{		have	am been	} singing.
			had	been	
		shall		be	
		sha'll	have	been	
		may		be	
		may	have	been	
		might		be	
		might	have	been	

(2.)

John	{			is	} loved.
			has	been	
				was	
			had	been	
		will		be	
		will	have	been	
		may		be	
		may	have	been	
	might		be		
	might	have	been		

☞ Let the Pupil substitute for the Word "John" the following Subjects, and notice what changes in the various Auxiliary Verbs must consequently be made. Thus,

- I requires (am—have—shall—shall have.)
- Thou " (art—hast—hadst—wilt—mayst—mightst.)
- They " (are—have.)
- People " (are—have.)
- He " [no change.]

Hence,

Obs.—The practical object of the following Paradigms is to teach the Pupil what are the various changes in the form of the Predicate to correspond to the Subject, and to indicate the various Modes, Tenses, Persons, and Numbers.

Paradigm of the Irregular Verb "BE."

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Am, was, being, been.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

	<i>Singular Number.</i>	<i>Plural Number.</i>
<i>First Person</i>	I am,	We are,
<i>Second</i> "	{ Thou art,	{ Ye are,
	{ You are,	{ You are,
<i>Third</i> "	He is.	They are.

PRIOR PRESENT TENSE.

1.	I have been,	We have been,
2.	{ Thou hast been,	{ Ye have been,
	{ You have been,	{ You have been,
3.	He has been.	They have been.

PAST TENSE.

1.	I was,	We were,
2.	{ Thou wast,	{ Ye were,
	{ You was	{ You were,
3.	He was:	They were.

PRIOR PAST TENSE.

1.	I had been,	We had been,
2.	{ Thou hadst been,	{ Ye had been,
	{ You had been,	{ You had been,
3.	He had been.	They had been.

FUTURE TENSE.

1.	I shall be,	We shall be,
2.	{ Thou wilt be,	{ Ye will be,
	{ You will be,	{ You will be,
3.	He will be.	They will be.

PRIOR FUTURE TENSE.

1.	I shall have been,	We shall have been,
2.	{ Thou wilt have been,	{ Ye will have been,
	{ You will have been,	{ You will have been,
3.	He will have been.	They will have been.

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1.	I may be,	We may be,
2.	{ Thou mayst be.	{ Ye may be,
	{ You may be,	{ You may be,
3.	He may be.	They may be.

* Some good writers use the Plural form of the Verb (*were*) in addressing one person.

PRIOR PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I may have been,
2. { Thou mayst have been,
- { You may have been,
3. He may have been.

Plural.

1. We may have been,
2. { Ye may have been,
- { You may have been,
3. They may have been.

PAST TENSE.

1. I might be,
2. { Thou mightst be,
- { You might be,
3. He might be.

1. We might be,
2. { Ye might be,
- { You might be,
3. They might be.

PRIOR PAST TENSE.

1. I might have been,
2. { Thou mightst have been,
- { You might have been,
3. He might have been.

1. We might have been,
2. { Ye might have been,
- { You might have been
3. They might have been

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

1. If I be,
2. { If thou be,
- { If you be,
3. If he be.

1. If we be,
2. { If ye be,
- { If you be,
3. If they be.

PAST TENSE.

1. If I were,
2. { If thou wert,
- { If you were,
3. If he were.

1. If we were,
2. { If ye were,
- { If you were,
3. If they were.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

2. { Be thou, *or*
- { Do thou be.

2. { Be ye, *or* Do ye be.
- { Be you, *or* Do you be.

INFINITIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.....To be.

PRIOR PRESENT TENSE.....To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT.....*Being.*

PAST.....*Been.*

PRIOR PRESENT.....*Having been.*

FORMULÆ OF REGULAR VERBS.

Transitive Verb—"RECITE."

ACTIVE VOICE.

The Principal Parts of this Verb are—

PRESENT TENSE	Recite.
PAST TENSE	Recited.
PRESENT PARTICIPLE	Reciting.
PAST PARTICIPLE	Recited.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE Recite.

*Simple Form.**Progressive Form.**Singular.*

1. I recite,
2. { Thou recitest,
- { You recite,
3. He recites.

- I am reciting,
 { Thou art reciting,
 { You are reciting,
 He is reciting.

Plural.

1. We recite,
2. { Ye recite,
- { You recite,
3. They recite.

- We are reciting,
 { Ye are reciting,
 { You are reciting,
 They are reciting.

PRIOR PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I have recited,
2. { Thou hast recited,
- { You have recited,
3. He has recited.

- I have been reciting,
 { Thou hast been reciting,
 { You have been reciting,
 He has been reciting.

Plural.

1. We have recited,
2. { Ye have recited,
- { You have recited,
3. They have recited.

- We have been reciting,
 { Ye have been reciting,
 { You have been reciting,
 They have been reciting.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

- | | |
|----------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. I recited, | I was reciting, |
| 2. { Thou recitedst, | { Thou wast reciting, |
| { You recited, | { You was or were reciting, |
| 3. He recited. | He was reciting. |

Plural.

- | | |
|------------------|----------------------|
| 1. We recited, | We were reciting, |
| 2. { Ye recited, | { Ye were reciting, |
| { You recited, | { You were reciting, |
| 3. They recited, | They were reciting. |

PRIOR PAST TENSE.

Singular.

- | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. I had recited, | I had been reciting, |
| 2. { Thou hadst recited, | { Thou hadst been reciting, |
| { You had recited, | { You had been reciting, |
| 3. He had recited. | He had been reciting. |

Plural.

- | | |
|----------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. We had recited, | We had been reciting, |
| 2. { Ye had recited, | { Ye had been reciting, |
| { You had recited, | { You had been reciting, |
| 3. They had recited. | They had been reciting. |

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.

- | | |
|------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I shall recite, | I shall be reciting, |
| 2. { Thou wilt recite, | { Thou wilt be reciting, |
| { You will recite, | { You will be reciting, |
| 3. He will recite. | He will be reciting. |

Plural.

- | | |
|----------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. We shall recite, | We shall be reciting, |
| 2. { Ye will recite, | { Ye will be reciting, |
| { You will recite, | { You will be reciting, |
| 3. They will recite. | They will be reciting. |

PRIOR FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.

- | | |
|------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. I shall have recited, | I shall have been reciting, |
| 2. { Thou wilt have recited, | { Thou wilt have been reciting, |
| { You will have recited, | { You will have been reciting, |
| 3. He will have recited, | He will have been reciting. |

Plural.

- | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. We shall have recited, | We shall have been reciting, |
| 2. { Ye will have recited, | { Ye will have been reciting, |
| { You will have recited, | { You will have been reciting, |
| 3. They will have recited. | They will have been reciting. |

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

- | | | |
|----|-----------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. | I <i>may</i> recite, | I <i>may be</i> reciting, |
| 2. | { Thou <i>mayst</i> recite, | { Thou <i>mayst be</i> reciting, |
| | { You <i>may</i> recite, | { You <i>may be</i> reciting, |
| 3. | He <i>may</i> recite. | He <i>may be</i> reciting. |

Plural.

- | | | |
|----|--------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. | We <i>may</i> recite, | We <i>may be</i> reciting, |
| 2. | { Ye <i>may</i> recite, | { Ye <i>may be</i> reciting, |
| | { You <i>may</i> recite, | { You <i>may be</i> reciting, |
| 3. | They <i>may</i> recite. | They <i>may be</i> reciting. |

PRIOR PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

- | | | |
|----|-----------------------------------|---|
| 1. | I <i>may have</i> recited, | I <i>may have been</i> reciting, |
| 2. | { Thou <i>mayst have</i> recited, | { Thou <i>mayst have been</i> reciting, |
| | { You <i>may have</i> recited, | { You <i>may have been</i> reciting, |
| 3. | He <i>may have</i> recited. | He <i>may have been</i> reciting. |

Plural.

- | | | |
|----|--------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. | We <i>may have</i> recited, | We <i>may have been</i> reciting, |
| 2. | { Ye <i>may have</i> recited, | { Ye <i>may have been</i> reciting, |
| | { You <i>may have</i> recited, | { You <i>may have been</i> reciting, |
| 3. | They <i>may have</i> recited. | They <i>may have been</i> reciting. |

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

- | | | |
|----|-------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. | I <i>might</i> recite, | I <i>might be</i> reciting, |
| 2. | { Thou <i>mightst</i> recite, | { Thou <i>mightst be</i> reciting, |
| | { You <i>might</i> recite, | { You <i>might be</i> reciting, |
| 3. | He <i>might</i> recite. | He <i>might be</i> reciting. |

Plural.

- | | | |
|----|----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. | We <i>might</i> recite, | We <i>might be</i> reciting, |
| 2. | { Ye <i>might</i> recite, | { Ye <i>might be</i> reciting, |
| | { You <i>might</i> recite, | { You <i>might be</i> reciting, |
| 3. | They <i>might</i> recite. | They <i>might be</i> reciting. |

PRIOR PAST TENSE.

Singular.

- | | | |
|----|-------------------------------------|---|
| 1. | I <i>might have</i> recited, | I <i>might have been</i> reciting, |
| 2. | { Thou <i>mightst have</i> recited, | { Thou <i>mightst have been</i> reciting, |
| | { You <i>might have</i> recited, | { You <i>might have been</i> reciting, |
| 3. | He <i>might have</i> recited. | He <i>might have been</i> reciting. |

Plural.

- | | | |
|----|----------------------------------|--|
| 1. | We <i>might have</i> recited, | We <i>might have been</i> reciting, |
| 2. | { Ye <i>might have</i> recited, | { Ye <i>might have been</i> reciting, |
| | { You <i>might have</i> recited, | { You <i>might have been</i> reciting, |
| 3. | They <i>might have</i> recited. | They <i>might have been</i> reciting. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

- | | | |
|----|-------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. | If I recite, | If I <i>be</i> reciting, |
| 2. | { If thou recite, | { If thou <i>be</i> reciting, |
| | { If you recite, | { If you <i>be</i> reciting, |
| 3. | If he recite. | If he <i>be</i> reciting. |

Plural.

- | | | |
|----|------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. | If we recite, | If we <i>be</i> reciting, |
| 2. | { If ye recite, | { If ye <i>be</i> reciting, |
| | { If you recite, | { If you <i>be</i> reciting, |
| 3. | If they recite. | If they <i>be</i> reciting. |

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

- | | | |
|----|------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. | Though I recited, | Though I <i>were</i> reciting, |
| 2. | { Though thou recited, | { Though thou <i>were</i> reciting, |
| | { Though you recited, | { Though you <i>were</i> reciting, |
| 3. | Though he recited. | Though he <i>were</i> reciting. |

Plural.

- | | | |
|----|-----------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. | Though we recited, | Though we <i>were</i> reciting, |
| 2. | { Though ye recited, | { Though ye <i>were</i> reciting, |
| | { Though you recited, | { Though you <i>were</i> reciting, |
| 3. | Though they recited. | Though they <i>were</i> reciting. |

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

- | | | |
|----|--------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 2. | { Recite thou, or | { <i>Be</i> thou reciting, or |
| | { <i>Do</i> thou recite. | { <i>Do</i> thou <i>be</i> reciting. |

Plural.

- | | | |
|----|-------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 2. | { Recite ye or you, or | { <i>Be</i> ye reciting, or |
| | { <i>Do</i> ye or you recite. | { <i>Do</i> ye <i>be</i> reciting. |

INFINITIVE MODE.

PRESENT.

To recite.	To <i>be</i> reciting.
------------	------------------------

PRIOR PRESENT.

To <i>have</i> recited.	To <i>have been</i> reciting.
-------------------------	-------------------------------

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT.

Reciting.

PRIOR PRESENT.

<i>Having</i> recited.	<i>Having been</i> reciting.
------------------------	------------------------------

Paradigm of the Verb "LOVE."

ACTIVE VOICE.

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I love,	I am loved,
2. { Thou lovest,	{ Thou art loved,
{ You love,	{ You are loved,
3. He loves.	He is loved.

Plural.

1. We love,	We are loved,
2. { Ye love,	{ Ye are loved,
{ You love,	{ You are loved,
3. They love.	They are loved.

PRIOR PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I have loved,	I have been loved,
2. { Thou hast loved,	{ Thou hast been loved,
{ You have loved,	{ You have been loved,
3. He has loved.	He has been loved.

Plural.

1. We have loved,	We have been loved,
2. { Ye have loved,	{ Ye have been loved,
{ You have loved,	{ You have been loved,
3. They have loved.	They have been loved.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. I loved,	I was loved,
2. { Thou lovedst,	{ Thou wast loved,
{ You loved,	{ You was or were loved,
3. He loved.	He was loved.

Plural.

1. We loved,	We were loved,
2. { Ye loved,	{ Ye were loved,
{ You loved,	{ You were loved,
3. They loved.	They were loved.

PRIOR PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. I had loved,	I had been loved,
2. { Thou hadst loved,	{ Thou hadst been loved,
{ You had loved,	{ You had been loved,
3. He had loved.	He had been loved.

Plural.

- | | | |
|----|------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. | We had loved, | We had been loved, |
| 2. | { Ye had loved, | { Ye had been loved, |
| | { You had loved, | { You had been loved, |
| 3. | They had loved. | They had been loved. |

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.

- | | | |
|----|-------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. | I shall love, | I shall be loved, |
| 2. | { Thou wilt love, | { Thou wilt be loved, |
| | { You will love, | { You will be loved, |
| 3. | He will love. | He will be loved. |

Plural.

- | | | |
|----|------------------|----------------------|
| 1. | We shall love, | We shall be loved, |
| 2. | { Ye will love, | { Ye will be loved, |
| | { You will love, | { You will be loved, |
| 3. | They will love. | They will be loved. |

PRIOR FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.

- | | | |
|----|-------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. | I shall have loved, | I shall have been loved, |
| 2. | { Thou wilt have loved, | { Thou wilt have been loved, |
| | { You will have loved, | { You will have been loved, |
| 3. | He will have loved. | He will have been loved. |

Plural.

- | | | |
|----|------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. | We shall have loved, | We shall have been loved, |
| 2. | { Ye will have loved, | { Ye will have been loved, |
| | { You will have loved, | { You will have been loved, |
| 3. | They will have loved. | They will have been loved. |

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE

Singular.

- | | | |
|----|--------------------|------------------------|
| 1. | I may love, | I may be loved, |
| 2. | { Thou mayst love, | { Thou mayst be loved, |
| | { You may love, | { You may be loved, |
| 3. | He may love. | He may be loved. |

Plural.

- | | | |
|----|-----------------|---------------------|
| 1. | We may love, | We may be loved, |
| 2. | { Ye may love, | { Ye may be loved, |
| | { You may love, | { You may be loved, |
| 3. | They may love. | They may be loved. |

PRIOR PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

- | | | |
|----|--------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. | I may have loved, | I may have been loved, |
| 2. | { Thou mayst have loved, | { Thou mayst have been loved, |
| | { You may have loved, | { You may have been loved, |
| 3. | He may have loved. | He may have been loved. |

Plural.

- | | | |
|----|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. | We may have loved, | We may have been loved, |
| 2. | { Ye may have loved, | { Ye may have been loved, |
| | { You may have loved, | { You may have been loved, |
| 3. | They may have loved. | They may have been loved. |

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

- | | | |
|----|----------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. | I might love, | I might be loved, |
| 2. | { Thou mightst love, | { Thou mightst be loved, |
| | { You might love, | { You might be loved, |
| 3. | He might love. | He might be loved. |

Plural.

- | | | |
|----|-------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. | We might love, | We might be loved, |
| 2. | { Ye might love, | { Ye might be loved, |
| | { You might love, | { You might be loved, |
| 3. | They might love. | They might be loved. |

PRIOR PAST TENSE.

Singular.

- | | | |
|----|----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. | I might have loved, | I might have been loved, |
| 2. | { Thou mightst have loved, | { Thou mightst have been loved, |
| | { You might have loved, | { You might have been loved, |
| 3. | He might have loved. | He might have been loved. |

Plural.

- | | | |
|----|-------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. | We might have loved, | We might have been loved, |
| 2. | { Ye might have loved, | { Ye might have been loved, |
| | { You might have loved, | { You might have been loved, |
| 3. | They might have loved. | They might have been loved. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

- | | | |
|----|-----------------|---------------------|
| 1. | If I love, | If I be loved, |
| 2. | { If thou love, | { If thou be loved. |
| | { If you love, | { If you be loved, |
| 3. | If he love. | If he be loved. |

*Synopsis of the Verb "STUDY."**Active Voice.*

INDICATIVE MODE.

*First Person.*DECLARATIVE FORM. DECLARATIVE FORM.—*Negative.*

PRESENT.....	I study.....	I study <i>not</i> , or I do not study.
PRIOR PRESENT.	I have studied	I have <i>not</i> studied.
PAST	I studied	I studied <i>not</i> , or I did not study.
PRIOR PAST....	I had studied	I had <i>not</i> studied.
FUTURE	I shall study.....	I shall <i>not</i> study.
PRIOR FUTURE..	I shall have studied..	I shall <i>not</i> have studied.

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT.....	I may study.....	I may <i>not</i> study.
PRIOR PRESENT.	I may have studied..	I may <i>not</i> have studied.
PAST	I might study.....	I might <i>not</i> study.
PRIOR PAST....	I might have studied..	I might <i>not</i> have studied.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT.....	If I study	If I study <i>not</i> .
PAST	If I studied.....	If I studied <i>not</i> .

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Second Person.

PRESENT.....	Study, or	} { Study <i>not</i> , or
"	Do thou study, } { Do <i>not</i> study.	

INFINITIVE MODE.

PRESENT.....	To study	<i>Not</i> to study.
PRIOR PRESENT..	To have studied ...	<i>Not</i> to have studied.

PARTICIPLES.

SIMPLE.....	Studying	<i>Not</i> studying, or studying <i>not</i> .
COMPOUND.....	Having studied.....	<i>Not</i> having studied.

Synopsis of the Verb "TURN.

Active Voice.

INDICATIVE MODE.

	DECLARATIVE FORM.	INTERROGATIVE FORM.
PRESENT.....	I turn.....	Do I turn?
PRIOR PRESENT...	I have turned.....	Have I turned?
PAST.....	I turned.....	Did I turn?
PRIOR PAST.....	I had turned.....	Had I turned?
FUTURE.....	I shall turn.....	Shall I turn?
PRIOR FUTURE...	I shall have turned....	Shall I have turned?

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT.....	I may turn.....	May I turn?
PRIOR PRESENT...	I may have turned ...	May I have turned?
PAST.....	I might turn.....	Might I turn?
PRIOR PAST.....	I might have turned...	Might I have turned?

Synopsis of the Verb "SELL."

Passive Voice.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Third Person.

	INTERROGATIVE FORM.	INTERROGATIVE FORM.— <i>Negative.</i>
PRESENT.....	Is it sold?.....	Is it not sold?
PRIOR PRESENT...	Has it been sold?.....	Has it not been sold?
PAST.....	Was it sold?.....	Was it not sold?
PRIOR PAST.....	Had it been sold?.....	Had it not been sold?
FUTURE.....	Will it be sold?.....	Will it not be sold?
PRIOR FUTURE...	Will it have been sold?..	Will it not have been sold?

POTENTIAL MODE.

Third Person.

PRESENT.....	May it be sold?.....	May it not be sold?
PRIOR PRESENT..	May it have been sold?..	May it not have been sold?
PAST.....	Might it be sold?.....	Might it not be sold?
PRIOR PAST.....	Might it have been sold?.	Might it not have been sold?

* The SUBJUNCTIVE, IMPERATIVE, and INFINITIVE MODES are not used in Interrogative Sentences.

Paradigm of the Irregular Verb "SEE."

DECLARATIVE FORM.

INTERROGATIVE FORM.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I see,	See I ?
2. { Thou seest,	{ Seest thou ?
{ You see,	{ See you ?
3. He sees.	Sees he ?

Plural.

1. We see,	See we ?
2. { Ye see,	{ See ye ?
{ You see,	{ See you ?
3. They see.	See they ?

OBS.—The above is the *Simple* form, which, in Interrogative Sentences, is not much used, the *Intensive* form being commonly employed. Thus,

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I do see,	Do I see ?
2. { Thou dost see,	{ Dost thou see
{ You do see,	{ Do you see ?
3. He does see.	Does he see ?

Plural.

1. We do see,	Do we see ?
2. { Ye do see,	{ Do ye see ?
{ You do see,	{ Do you see ?
3. They do see.	Do they see ?

PRIOR PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I have seen,	Have I seen ?
2. { Thou hast seen,	{ Hast thou seen ?
{ You have seen,	{ Have you seen ?
3. He has seen.	Has he seen ?

Plural.

1. We have seen,	Have we seen ?
2. { Ye have seen,	{ Have ye seen ?
{ You have seen,	{ Have you seen ?
3. They have seen.	Have they seen ?

PAST TENSE.—*Simple Form.*

Singular.

- | | | |
|----|----------------|----------------|
| 1. | I saw, | Saw I? |
| 2. | { Thou sawest, | { Sawest thou? |
| | { You saw, | { Saw you? |
| 3. | He saw. | Saw he? |

Plural.

- | | | |
|----|------------|------------|
| 1. | We saw, | Saw we? |
| 2. | { Ye saw, | { Saw ye? |
| | { You saw, | { Saw you? |
| 3. | They saw. | Saw they? |

PAST TENSE.—*Intensive Form.*

Singular.

- | | | |
|----|-------------------|-------------------|
| 1. | I did see, | Did I see? |
| 2. | { Thou didst see, | { Didst thou see? |
| | { You did see, | { Did you see? |
| 3. | He did see. | Did he see? |

Plural.

- | | | |
|----|----------------|----------------|
| 1. | We did see, | Did we see? |
| 2. | { Ye did see, | { Did ye see? |
| | { You did see, | { Did you see? |
| 3. | They did see. | Did they see? |

PRIOR PAST TENSE.

Singular.

- | | | |
|----|--------------------|--------------------|
| 1. | I had seen, | Had I seen? |
| 2. | { Thou hadst seen, | { Hadst thou seen? |
| | { You had seen, | { Had you seen? |
| 3. | He had seen. | Had he seen? |

Plural.

- | | | |
|----|-----------------|-----------------|
| 1. | We had seen, | Had we seen? |
| 2. | { Ye had seen, | { Had ye seen? |
| | { You had seen, | { Had you seen? |
| 3. | They had seen. | Had they seen? |

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

- | | | |
|----|-------------------|-------------------|
| 1. | I can see, | Can I see? |
| 2. | { Thou canst see, | { Canst thou see? |
| | { You can see, | { Can you see? |
| 3. | He can see. | Can he see? |

Plural.

- | | | |
|----|----------------|-----------------|
| 1. | We can see, | Can we see ? |
| 2. | { Ye can see, | { Can ye see ? |
| | { You can see, | { Can you see ? |
| 3. | They can see. | Can they see ? |

PRIOR PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

- | | | |
|----|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. | I can have seen, | Can I have seen ? |
| 2. | { Thou canst have seen, | { Canst thou have seen ? |
| | { You can have seen, | { Can you have seen ? |
| 3. | He can have seen. | Can he have seen ? |

Plural.

- | | | |
|----|----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. | We can have seen, | Can we have seen ? |
| 2. | { Ye can have seen, | { Can ye have seen ? |
| | { You can have seen, | { Can you have seen ? |
| 3. | They can have seen. | Can they have seen ? |

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

- | | | |
|----|---------------------|----------------------|
| 1. | I could see, | Could I see ? |
| 2. | { Thou couldst see, | { Couldst thou see ? |
| | { You could see, | { Could you see ? |
| 3. | He could see. | Could he see ? |

Plural.

- | | | |
|----|------------------|-------------------|
| 1. | We could see, | Could we see ? |
| 2. | { Ye could see, | { Could ye see ? |
| | { You could see, | { Could you see ? |
| 3. | They could see. | Could they see ? |

PRIOR PAST TENSE.

Singular.

- | | | |
|----|---------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. | I could have seen, | Could I have seen ? |
| 2. | { Thou couldst have seen, | { Couldst thou have seen ? |
| | { You could have seen, | { Could you have seen ? |
| 3. | He could have seen. | Could he have seen ? |

Plural.

- | | | |
|----|------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. | We could have seen, | Could we have seen ? |
| 2. | { Ye could have seen, | { Could ye have seen ? |
| | { You could have seen, | { Could you have seen ? |
| 3. | They could have seen. | Could they have seen ? |

Let the Pupil give the other Modes and Tenses of this Verb—referring to pp. 132-3 for corresponding declarative forms.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

PAGE		
107.	What is a <i>Verb</i> ?	See Def. 97.
	How are Verbs distinguished ?	
	What is a <i>Transitive Verb</i> ?	See Def. 98.
	What is an <i>Intransitive Verb</i> ?	See Def. 99.
	What is a <i>Neuter Verb</i> ?	See Def. 100.
108.	What are the sub-classes of <i>Transitive Verbs</i> ?	
	When are Verbs in the <i>Active Voice</i> ?	See Def. 101.
	When are Verbs in the <i>Passive Voice</i> ?	See Def. 102.
	How is the <i>Passive Voice</i> formed ?	See Obs. 2.
109.	What gives occasion for distinctions of <i>Mode</i> ?	See Rem.
	Name the different <i>Modes</i> .	
	When are Verbs in the <i>Indicative Mode</i> ?	See Def. 103.
110.	When is a Verb in the <i>Potential Mode</i> ?	See Def. 104.
	When is a Verb in the <i>Subjunctive Mode</i> ?	See Def. 105.
	When is a Verb in the <i>Imperative Mode</i> ?	See Def. 106.
111.	When is a Verb in the <i>Infinitive Mode</i> ?	See Def. 107.
	What is a <i>Participle</i> ?	See Def. 108.
112.	What are the principal distinctions of <i>Participles</i> ?	
	What is a <i>Simple Participle</i> ?	See Def. 109.
	What is a <i>Compound Participle</i> ?	See Def. 110.
	How are the <i>Simple Participles</i> distinguished ?	
	What is the <i>Present Participle</i> ?	See Def. 111.
113.	What is the <i>Past Participle</i> ?	See Def. 112.
114.	What various offices do <i>Participles</i> perform ?	See Obs. 8.
115.	What is <i>Tense</i> ?—What <i>Names</i> are given to the <i>Tenses</i> ?	
	Define the <i>Prior Past Tense</i> , and give <i>Examples</i> .	See Def. 114.
	Define the <i>Past Tense</i> , “ “	See Def. 115.
116.	Define the <i>Prior Present Tense</i> , “ “	See Def. 116.
	Define the <i>Present Tense</i> , “ “	See Def. 117.
	Define the <i>Prior Future Tense</i> , “ “	See Def. 118.
	Define the <i>Future Tense</i> , “ “	See Def. 119.
	Give the various <i>Tenses</i> in the different <i>Modes</i> .	See Recapitulation.
120.	What does the term <i>Conjugation</i> indicate ?	See Rem.
	How are Verbs distinguished, in <i>Inflections</i> ?	
	What is a <i>Regular Verb</i> ?	See Def. 120.
	What is an <i>Irregular Verb</i> ?	See Def. 121.
121.	What is a <i>Defective Verb</i> ?	See Def. 122.
	What is an <i>Auxiliary Verb</i> ?	See Def. 123.
	Give the various offices of the <i>Auxiliary Verbs</i> .	See Obs. 1.

EXERCISES.

(I.)

Let the Pupils give the Class, Voice, Mode, Tense, Person, and Number of the following Verbs—and complete the Sentences.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1.—am writing a letter. | 9.—couldst love to study. |
| 2.—are reading poetry. | 10.—has walked to Boston. |
| 3.—didst see the eclipse. | 11.—hast wandered from home. |
| 4.—had known duty. | 12.—shall learn wisdom. |
| 5.—may feel the worm. | 13.—will improve in writing. |
| 6.—ought to study. | 14.—could recite lessons. |
| 7.—couldst have favored him. | 15.—canst be false to any man. |
| 8.—thou love me. | 16.—wish to see home. |
| 17.—wilt have returned my books. | |
| 18.—shall have returned from Europe. | |

(II.)

Repeat the First Person Singular of each Mode and Tense of the following Verbs :

Am,	Eat,	Neglect,	Receive,
Arise,	Fly,	Need,	Reject,
Begin,	Go,	Owe,	Select,
Blow,	Hold,	Ought,	Squander,
Come,	Know,	Practice,	Yoke,
Cut,	Lay,	Purchase,	Touch,
Do,	Lie,	Quiet,	Use,
Drink,	Make,	Qualify.	Wish.

Repeat the Third Person Plural of the same.

(III.)

Let the appropriate Auxiliary Verbs be inserted in the blank spaces indicated.

1. "Now the shades of night — gone."
2. "The bell's deep tones — swelling."
3. "The palace — wrapped in flames."
4. "How — my heart encrusted with the world!"
5. "Everything in the life of such persons — misplaced."
6. "Science — raise thee to eminence."
7. "But I alone — guide thee to felicity."

8. "Ten years I — allot to the attainment of knowledge."
9. "A chieftain's vengeance thou — feel."
10. "The injuries of Fortune — not affect the mind."

(IV.)

Let two Auxiliary Verbs be inserted in the following Sentences :

1. John — not — gone to the river.
2. We — — finished our task at five.
3. The earth — — dissolved like snow.
4. How — we — reconciled ?
5. Who — — thought it ?
6. You — — fatigued.
7. He — not — frightened.
8. You — — brought my letters.
9. The boy — — been injured by it.
10. No doctor — — made that man well.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

REM.—The following are the IRREGULAR and the REDUNDANT VERBS of the English language.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Present Participle.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Abide,	abode,	abiding,	abode or abided.*
Am or he, was,		being,	been.
Arise,	arose,	arising,	arisen.
Awake,	awoke or awaked,	awaking,	awoke or awaked
Bear,	bore or bare,	bearing,	born.
Bear, <i>to</i> } <i>sustain,</i> }	bore or bare,	bearing,	borne,
Beat,	beat,	beating,	beaten or beat.
Begin,	began or begun,	beginning,	begun.
Behold,	beheld,	beholding,	beheld.
Belay,	belayed or belaid,	belaying,	belayed or belaid.
Bend,	bent or bended,	bending,	bent or bended.
Bereave,	bereft or bereaved,	bereaving,	bereft or bereaved.
Beset,	beset,	besetting,	beset.
Deseech,	besought or beseeched,*	beseeching,	besought or beseeched.*
Bet,	bet or betted,	betting,	bet or betted.*

* Obsolete forms.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Present Participle.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Betide,	betided or betid,*	betiding,	betided or betid.
Bid,	bade or bid,	bidding,	bidden or bid.
Bind,	bound,	binding,	bound.
Bite,	bit,	biting,	bitten or bit.
Bleed,	bled,	bleeding,	bled.
Blend,	blended or blent,	blending,	blended or blent.
Bless,	blessed or blest,	blessing,	blessed or blest.
Blow,	blew or blowed,	blowing,	blowed or blown.
Break,	broke,	breaking,	broken.
Breed,	bred,	breeding,	breed.
Bring,	brought,	bringing,	brought.
Build,	built or builded,*	building,	built or builded.*
Burn,	burned or burnt,	burning,	burned or burnt.
Burst,	burst or bursted,*	bursting,	burst or bursted.*
Buy,	bought,	buying,	bought.
Cast,	cast,	casting,	cast.
Catch,	caught or catched,*	catching,	caught or catched.*
Chide,	chid,	chiding,	chidden or chid.
Choose,	chose,	choosing,	chosen.
Cleave,	clove or cleft,	cleaving,	cloven or cleft.
Cleave,	cleaved or clave,	cleaving,	cleaved.
Cling,	clung,	clinging,	clung.
Clothe,	clothed or clad,	clothing,	clothed or clad.
Come,	came,	coming,	come.
Cost,	cost,	costing,	cost.
Creep,	crept or creeped,*	creeping,	crept or creeped.*
Crow,	crowed or crew,	crowing,	crowed.
Curse,	cursed or curst,*	cursing,	cursed or curst.*
Cut,	cut,	cutting,	cut.
Dare,	dared or durst,	daring,	dared or durst.
Deal,	dealt or dealed,*	dealing,	dealt or dealed.*
Dig,	dug or digged,*	digging,	dug or digged.*
Dive,	dived or dove,	diving,	dived or diven.
Do,	did,	doing,	done.
Draw,	drew,	drawing,	drawn.
Dream,	dreamed or dreamt,	dreaming,	dreamed or dreamt.
Dress,	dressed or drest,	dressing,	dressed or drest.
Drink,	drank,	drinking,	drunk or drank.
Drive,	drove,	driving,	driven.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Present Participle.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Dwell,	dwelt or dwelled,*	dwelling,	dwelt or dwelled.*
Eat,	ate or eat,*	eating,	eaten or eat.*
Fall,	fell,	falling,	fallen.
Feed,	fed,	feeding,	fed.
Feel,	felt,	feeling,	felt.
Fight,	fought,	fighting,	fought.
Find,	found,	finding,	found.
Flee,	fled,	fleeing,	fled.
Fling,	flung,	flinging,	flung.
Fly,	flew,	flying,	flown.
Forbear,	forbore,	forbearing,	forborne.
Forget,	forgot or forgat,	forgetting,	forgotten or forgot.
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaking,	forsaken.
Freeze,	froze or freezed,*	freezing,	frozen or freezed.*
Geld,	gelded or gelt,*	gelding,	gelded or gelt.*
Get,	got or gat,*	getting,	got or gotten.*
Gild,	gilded or gilt,	gilding,	gilded or gilt.
Girt,	girded or girt,	girding,	girded or girt.
Give,	gave,	giving,	given.
Go,	went,	going,	gone.
Grave,	graved,	graving,	graved or graven.
Grind,	ground,	grinding,	ground.
Grow,	grew,	growing,	grown.
Hang,	hung or hanged,	hanging,	hung or hanged.
Have,	had,	having,	had.
Hear,	heard,	hearing,	heard.
Heave,	heaved or hove,*	heaving,	heaved or hoven.*
Hew,	hewed,	hewing,	hewed or hewn.
Hide,	hid,	hiding,	hidden or hid.
Hit,	hit,	hitting,	hit.
Hold,	held,	holding,	held or holden.*
Hurt,	hurt,	hurting,	hurt.
Keep,	kept,	keeping,	kept.
Kneel,	kneeled or knelt,	kneeling,	kneeled or knelt.
Knit,	knit or knitted,	knitting,	knit or knitted.
Know,	knew,	knowing,	known.
Lade,	laded,	lading,	laded or laden.
Lay,	laid or layed,	laying,	laid or layed.*
Lead,	led,	leading,	led.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Present Participle.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Lean,	leaned or leant,	leaning,	leaned or lent.
Leap,	leaped or leapt,	leaping,	leaped or leapt.
Learn,	learned or learnt,	learning,	learned or learnt.
Leave,	left,	leaving,	left.
Lend,	lent,	lending,	lent.
Let,	let,	letting,	let.
Lie,	lay,	lying,	lain.
Light,	lighted or lit,	lighting,	lighted or lit.
Loose,	lost,	loosing,	lost.
Make,	made,	making,	made.
Mean,	meant or meant,*	meaning,	meant or meant.*
Meet,	met,	meeting,	met.
Mow,	mowed,	mowing,	mowed or mown.
Mulct,	mulcted or mulct,*	mulcting,	mulcted or mulct.*
Outdo,	outdid,	outdoing,	outdone.
Pass,	passed or past,	passing,	passed or past.
Pay,	paid or payed,*	paying,	paid or payed.*
Pen,	penned or pent,*	penning,	penned or pent.*
Plead,	pled or pleaded,	pleading,	pled or pleaded.
Prove,	proved,	proving,	proved or proven.
Put,	put,	putting,	put.
Quit,	quitted or quit,	quitting,	quitted or quit.
Rap,	rapped or rapt,	rapping,	rapped or rapt.
Read,	read,	reading,	read.
Rend,	rent,	rending,	rent.
Rid,	rid,	riding,	rid.
Ride,	rode,	riding,	rode or ridden.
Ring,	rung or rang,	ringing,	rung,
Rise,	rose,	rising,	risen.
Rive,	rived,	riving,	riven or rived.
Roast,	roasted or roast,	roasting,	roasted or roast.
Rot,	rotted,	rotting,	rotten or rotted.
Run,	ran or run,	running,	run.
Saw,	sawed,	sawing,	sawn or sawed.
Say,	said,	saying,	said.
See,	saw,	seeing,	seen.
Seek,	sought,	seeking,	sought.
Sell,	sold,	selling,	sold.
Send,	sent,	sending,	sent.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Present Participle.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Set,	set,	setting,	set.
Shake,	shook or shook,*	shaking,	shaken or shaken.*
Shape,	shaped,	shaping,	shaped or shapen.
Shave,	shaved,	shaving,	shaved or shaven.
Shear,	sheared,	shearing,	sheared or shorn.
Shed,	shed,	shedding,	shed.
Shine,	shone or shined,	shining,	shined or shone.
Show,	showed,	showing,	showed or shown.
Shoe,	shod,	shoeing,	shod.
Shoot,	shot,	shooting,	shot.
Shred,	shred,	shredding,	shred.
Shrink,	shrunk,	shrinking,	shrunk.
Shut,	shut,	shutting,	shut.
Sing,	sung or sang,	singing,	sung.
Sink,	sunk or sank,	sinking,	sunk.
Sit,	sat,	sitting,	sat.
Slay,	slew,	slaying,	slain.
Sleep,	slept,	sleeping,	slept.
Slide,	slid,	sliding,	slidden or slid.
Sling,	slung,	slinging,	slung.
Slink,	slunk,	slinking,	slunk.
Slit,	slitted or slit,	slitting,	slitted or slit.
Smell,	smelled or smelt,	smelling,	smelled or smelt.
Smite,	smote,	smiting,	smitten or smit.
Sow,	sowed,	sowing,	sowed or sown.
Speak,	spoke or spake,	speaking,	spoken.
Speed,	sped,	speeding,	sped.
Spell,	spelled or spelt,	spelling,	spelled or spelt.
Spend,	spent,	spending,	spent.
Spill,	spilled or spilt,	spilling,	spilled or spilt.
Spin,	spun,	spinning,	spun.
Spit,	spit or spat,*	spitting,	spit.
Split,	split,	splitting,	split.
Spoil,	spoiled or spoilt,	spoiling,	spoiled or spoilt.
Spread,	spread,	spreading,	spread.
Spring,	sprung or sprang,	springing,	sprung.
Stand,	stood,	standing,	stood.
Stave,	stove or staved,	staving,	stove or staved.
Stay,	staid or stayed,*	staying,	staid or stayed.*

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Present Participle.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Steal,	stole.	stealing,	stolen.
Stick,	stuck,	sticking,	stuck
Sting,	stung,	stinging,	stung.
Stink,	stunk or stank,*	stinking,	stunk.
Stride,	strode or strid,	striding,	stridden.
Strike,	struck,	striking,	struck or stricken.
String,	strung or stringed,	stringing,	strung or stringed.
Strive,	strove,	striving,	striven.
Strow,	strowed,	strowing,	strowed or strown.
Swear,	swore,	swearing,	sworn.
Sweat,	sweated or sweat,	sweating,	sweated or sweat.
Sweep,	swept,	sweeping,	swept.
Swell,	swelled,	swelling,	swelled or swollen.
Swim,	swam,	swimming,	swam.
Swing,	swung,	swinging,	swung.
Take,	took,	taking,	taken.
Teach,	taught,	teaching,	taught
Tear,	tore,	tearing,	torn.
Tell,	told,	telling,	told.
Think,	thought,	thinking,	thought.
Thrive,	thrived or throve,	thriving,	thrived or thriven.
Throw,	threw or throwed,	throwing,	thrown or throwed.
Thrust,	thrust,	thrusting,	thrust.
Tread,	trod,	treading,	trodden or trod.
Wake,	waked or woke,	waking,	waked or woke.
Wax,	waxed,	waxing,	waxed or waxen.
Wear,	wore,	wearing,	worn.
Weave,	wove,	weaving,	woven or wove.
Wed,	wedded or wed,	wedding,	wedded or wed.
Weep,	wept,	weeping,	wept.
Wet,	wet or wetted,	wetting,	wet or wetted.
Whet,	whetted or whet,	whetting,	whetted or whet.
Win,	won,	winning,	won.
Wind,	wound or winded,*	winding,	wound or winded.
Work,	worked or wrought,	working,	worked or wrought.
Wring,	wrung or wringed,	wringing,	wringed or wrung.
Write,	wrote,	writing,	written or writ.

Obs. 1.— Words in the above list, marked with a (*), are not much used by modern writers.

Obs. 2.—A Verb often has a Preposition or other prefix placed before it; the conjugation, however, remains the same.

EXAMPLES.

Take.....took.....taken.
 Mistake.....mistook.....mistaken.
 Overtake.....overtook.....overtaken.
 Misunderstand.....misunderstood.....misunderstood.

REM.—The class should repeat this list *in concert*—prefixing to each Verb one of the Personal Pronouns. For the Third Person a Noun may be used—thus :

I write.....I wrote.....I have written....having writte
 You tread...you trod....you have trod....having trod.
 He sweeps...he swept....he has swept.....having swept.
 John does...John did.....John has done....having done.
 Men sit.....men sat.....men have sat.....having sat.
 Some hear...some heard...some have heard...having heard.
 They see.....they saw.....they are seen.....being seen.

To the Transitive Verbs, Objects may be attached—thus :

We saw wood.....we sawed wood.....we have sawn wood.
 Birds build nests..birds built nests...birds have built nests.
 John writes letters. John wrote letters..John will write letters.
 Thou seest me....thou sawest me.....thou wilt see me.

Other variations in these concert exercises may be profitable—such as placing the words *now*, *to-day*, etc., after the Present—*yesterday*, etc., after the Past Tense—and *heretofore*, *recently*, etc., after the Prior Present—thus :

I begin to-day.....I began yesterday..I have begun recently.
 The wind blows now.the wind blew then.the wind has blown often.
 The bell rings often..the bell rang lately.the bell will ring to-morrow.
 William writes now..William wrote then.William will write often.

UNIPERSONAL VERBS.

DEF. 124.—A Verb used only as the Predicate of the Indefinite Pronoun "*it*," is called a *Unipersonal Verb*.

EXAMPLES.—It snows.—It rains.—It seems.—It becomes.—It behooves.—It is evident.

Methinks is an anomalous form of the Verb *think*.

EXERCISES IN REVIEW.

REM.—Let the Pupil give the *Voice, Mode, Tense, Person, and Number*, of the Verbs in the following Sentences :

1. Science *strengthens* mind.
2. *Do* you see the large ship traversing the ocean by the force of the wind?
3. William *has visited* Europe.
4. *Have* we exercised discretion?
5. I, John, *saw* these things.
6. *Did* Washington secure renown?
7. Ye had *accomplished* purposes.
8. I *shall understand* you.
9. *Will* Warner study Greek?
10. Thou *will not comprehend* it.
11. Ye *will have accomplished* much.
12. We *may receive* instruction.
13. *Canst* thou guide Arcturus?
14. *Shall* William accompany us?
15. I *will study* Greek.
16. They *are not appreciated*.
17. *Could* it not be accomplished?
18. Mary *might have been misinformed*.
19. Wisdom *should be honored*.
20. Thou *canst not have been understood*.
21. Sevastopol *could not have been taken*.
22. Meteors *might have been seen*.
23. What *should have been done*?
24. Who *can be trusted*?
25. *Have* you been reading poetry?
26. Cora *will be writing* letters.
27. Stephen *could not have been giving* attention.
28. *Might* Clara have been admitted?
29. Boys *had been reciting* lessons.
30. We *will not be enslaved*.
31. Pupils *might not have been giving* attention.
32. Caroline *will have visited* Syria.
33. *Hear* me for my cause.
34. *Be silent*, that ye may hear.
35. *Bid* her give me new and glorious hopes.

ADVERBS.

REM.—As actions are modified by circumstances, and as qualities vary in degree, so words expressing actions, and words denoting qualities, are modified by other words, denoting *time, place, degree, manner, cause, etc.* Hence,

DEF. 125.—A Word used to modify the signification of a Verb, an Adjective, or another Modifier, is called an *Adverb*.

OBS. 1.—Adverbs may consist of Words, Phrases, and Sentences.

1. A *Word*.—The *very* best men *sometimes* commit faults.
2. A *Phrase*.—"In the *beginning*, God created the heaven and the earth."
3. A *Sentence*.—"They kneeled *before they fought*."

OBS. 2.—Adverbial Words are of great utility in rendering the language *concise* and *spirited*. They are commonly substituted for Phrases.

EXAMPLES.

"Brilliantly" . . . for . . . "With a brilliant appearance."
 "Solemnly" for . . . "In a solemn manner."
 "Vainly" for . . . "In a vain attempt."
 "Here" for . . . "In this place."
 "Now" for . . . "At this time."

1. "*Brilliantly* the glassy waters mirror back his smiles."
2. "*Solemnly* he took the earthly state."
3. "*Vainly* we offer each ample oblation."
4. "*Here* sleeps he *now*."
5. "The waves are white *below*."
The waves are white *below him*.
6. "Heat *me* these irons hot."
Heat *for me* these irons hot.
7. "Willie has come *home*—early."
Willie has come *to his home*—*at an early hour*.

REM.—"Below"—"me"—"home" and "early," are substituted for Adverbial Phrases. [See Part I., page 23.]

OBS. 3.—Words are also substituted for Adverbial Sentences.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “While *there* we visited the prison;” for, while *we were at Auburn*, we visited the prison.
2. “*Then, when I am thy captive*, talk of chains ”

OBS. 4.—An Adverb often modifies a Phrase.

- EXAMPLES.—1. We went *almost* TO BOSTON.
2. Wilkes sailed *quite* AROUND THE WORLD.
3. Engraved *expressly* FOR THE LADIES' GARLAND.

OBS. 5.—The Words which Adverbs properly modify are sometimes understood.

EXAMPLE.—Thou canst but add one bitter woe
To those [] *already there*.

OBS. 6.—Adverbs sometimes take the place of Verbs, which they modify.

EXAMPLES.—“*Off, off*, I bid you.” “*To arms!*”
“*Back* to thy punishment, false fugitive!”

OBS. 7.—Words generally used as Adverbs sometimes take the place of Nouns, and hence become *Pronouns*.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “Till *then*”—for, till that time.
2. “From *there*”—for, from that place.
3. “And I have made a pilgrimage *from far*.”—*Hosmer*.
4. “Oh, let the ungentle spirit learn from *hence*
A small unkindness is a great offense.”

OBS. 8.—Participles become Adverbs when they indicate the manner of an action, or modify a quality.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “The surging billows and the gamboling storms
Come, *crouching*, to his feet.” [P. 249, Obs. 5.]
2. “Now it mounts the wave,
And rises, *threatening*, to the frowning sky.”
3. “’Tis strange, ’tis *passing* strange.”
4. “A virtuous household, but *exceeding* poor.”

OBS. 9.—A few words, commonly used as Prepositions, are sometimes used Adverbially.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “Thou didst look *down* upon the naked earth.”
2. “And may at last my weary age
3. Find *out* the peaceful hermitage.”—*Milton*.

CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS.

REM.—The classes of Adverbs are very numerous. The following are the most important :

I. OF THE FORMS OF ADVERBS.

OBS. 10.—Some Words are used almost exclusively as Adverbs ; such are *Primitive Words*.

EXAMPLES.—Even—here—now—not—then—there.

OBS. 11.—But most Words used as Adverbs are *Derivative Words*—their Radicals being commonly used as *Nouns* or as *Adjectives*.

EXAMPLES.

1. From *Nouns*.—*Always—nightly—hourly—aloft—ashore.*
2. From *Adjectives*.—*Brilliantly—rightly—softly—virtuously.*

OBS. 12.—Many Words, commonly used as Nouns, Adjectives, Prepositions, etc., become Adverbs *by representation or substitution*.

- EXAMPLES.—
1. “William rises *early*”—*at an early hour.*
 2. “You have come *too late*”—*at too late a day*
 3. “Warner will come *home*”—*to his home.*
 4. “He will return *to-morrow*”—*on the morrow.*
 5. “The captain had gone *below*”—*below deck.*
 6. “Is the agent *within* ?”—*within the house.*

[See page 23, Obs. 2.]

II. OF THE FUNCTIONS OF ADVERBS.

Adverbs are commonly divided into two primary classes :

1. Adverbs of *Manner*, and
2. Adverbs of *Circumstance*.

DEF. 126.—*Adverbs of Manner* are those which ask or answer the question, *How ?*

OBS. 1.—Adverbs of *Manner* are such as indicate—

1. *Affirmation*—Ay—certainly—doubtless—surely—verily, etc.
2. *Doubt*.—Perchance—perhaps—possibly, etc.
3. *Mode*.—Aloud—asunder—how—so—together—thus, etc.
4. *Negation*.—Nay—not.

OBS. 2.—Phrases and Sentences often indicate the *manner of an act*.

EXAMPLES.

Phrases.—1. “God moves *in a mysterious way*.”

2. “Silence now
I brooding *like a gentle spirit* o'er
The still and pulseless world.”

3. “Omar had passed seventy-five years *in honor and prosperity*.”

Sentences.—4. “He died *as he lived*—a devotee of mammon.”

5. “There are departed beings that I have loved *as I never again shall love in this world*.”

DEF. 127.—*Adverbs of Circumstance* are such as ask or answer the questions, *When? Where? Whether? Whence? How much? Why?*—indicating *Time, Place, Degree, Cause*.

I. OF TIME.

REM.—All Words used to *ask* or to *answer* the questions, “*When?*” or “*How often?*” are properly called *Adverbs of Time*.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Present*.—Instantly—now—presently—yet, etc.

2. *Past*.—Already—heretofore—hitherto—lately—yesterday, etc.

3. *Future*.—Henceforth—hereafter—soon, etc.

4. *Absolute*.—Always—ever—never, etc.

5. *Repeated*.—Continually—often—rarely—sometimes, etc.

OBS. 1.—Phrases and Sentences also perform the office of *Adverbs of Time*.

EXAMPLES.

Phrases.—1. “*In the beginning*, God created the heaven and the earth.”

2. “The Christmas rose is in bloom *during the month of January*.”

3. “*At midnight*, in his guarded tent,
The Turk was dreaming.”

Sentences.—4. “And *as Jesus passed by*, he saw a man who was blind.”

5. “I think of the friends who had roamed with me there,
When the sky was so blue, and the flowers were so fair.”

6. “Ye that keep watch in heaven, *as earth, asleep,*
Unconscious lies, effuse your mildest beams.”

II. OF PLACE.

OBS. 2.—All Words used to *ask* or to *answer* the questions, *Where?* *Whither?* or *Whence?* are classed as *Adverbs of Place*.

EXAMPLES.—1. *In a Place*.—Here—there—where? etc.

2. *To a Place*.—Hither—thither—whither? etc.

3. *From a Place*.—Hence—thence—whence? etc.

OBS. 3.—Most Adverbs of Place are in the form of *Phrases*.

EXAMPLES.—Mary went {
in the cars,
from Rochester,
through New York,
to Norfolk,
via Baltimore.

And many in the form of *Sentences*.

EXAMPLE.—“*Where wealth and freedom reign, contentment fails.*”

OBS. 4.—Words which ask or answer the questions, *How much?* *How far?* *To what extent?*—are classed as *Adverbs of Degree*.

EXAMPLES.—Altogether—hardly—little—much—quite—merely—so—too—very, etc.

OBS. 5. Words used to ask or to answer the questions, *Why?* *Wherefore?* etc., are classed as *Adverbs of Cause*.

EXAMPLES.—Accordingly—consequently—hence—therefore—wherefore, etc.

“Let others brave the flood *in quest of gain.*”

OBS. 6.—Adverbs used to ask questions are called *Interrogative Adverbs*.

EXAMPLES.—Where have you been?—How can we escape?

MODIFICATION.

Some Adverbs are modified, like Adjectives, by comparison.

EXAMPLES.

	<i>Pos.</i>	<i>Comp.</i>	<i>Superl.</i>
1. <i>By use of Suffixes</i>	Soon	Sooner	Soonest.
2. “ “ <i>Auxiliary Adverbs</i> . .	Wisely . . .	More wisely . .	Most wisely.

EXERCISES.

Let the following Adverbs be classified and their Modification given :

How,	Already,	In a moment,
Not,	Quickly,	In flower,
There,	Vilely,	O'er the ruins,
Soon,	Eagerly,	At pile.

Let the Adverbial Words, Phrases, and Sentences, in the following Examples, be pointed out and parsed after the following

MODEL.

1. "E'en now, where Alpine solitudes ascend,
I sit me down, a pensive hour to spend;
And placed on high, above the storm's career,
Look downward, where a hundred realms appear."

Now Modifies "sit"—denoting *time*; hence, an Adverb.
 Where Alpine solitudes ascend . . } Modifies "sit"—denoting *place*; hence, an Adverb.
 Down Modifies "sit"—denoting *place*; hence, an Adverb.
 A pensive hour to spend } Modifies "sit"—denoting *cause*; hence, an Adverb.
 On high Modifies "placed"—denoting *place*; hence an Adv.
 Above the storm's career } Modifies "placed"—denoting *place*; hence an Adv.
 Downward Modifies "look"—denoting *place*; hence, an Adv.
 Where a hundred realms appear . } Modifies "look"—denoting *place*; hence, an Adv.

2. "Earth keeps me here
Awhile; yet I shall leave it, and shall rise
n fairer wings than thine, to skies more clear."

Here Modifies "keeps"—denoting *place*; hence, Adverb of Place.
 Awhile . . . Modifies "keeps"—denoting *time*; hence, Adverb of Time.
 On wings . . Modifies "rise"—denoting *means*; hence, Adverb of Means.
 ("On fairer wings than thine," is the Modified Adverb.)
 Than thine . Modifies "fairer"—denoting *degree*; hence, Adverb of Degree.
 To skies . . . Modifies "rise"—denoting *place*; hence, Adverb of Place.
 ("To skies more clear," is the Modified Adverb.)
 More Modifies "clear"—denoting *degree*; hence, Adverb of Degree.

3. "How much better satisfied he is!"

How Modifies "much;" hence, an Adverb.
 Much Modifies "better;" hence, an Adverb.
 Better Modifies "satisfied;" hence, an Adverb.

Obs. 1.—Let it be remembered that the term "Adverbs" is applied to a distinct element in the structure of Sentences—that the function of that element may be performed by a single *Word* or by a combination

of Words, constituting a Phrase or a Sentence. In analyzing Sentences containing these three distinct forms of the Adverbial Element, we proceed according to the MODELS given above. But,

Obs. 2.—The *Words* composing an Adverbial Phrase or Sentence have also their distinct *individual* offices. Thus, the Adverbial Phrase, “Above the storm’s career,” consists of a *Preposition*, (above)—an *Adjective*, (the)—an *Adjective*, (storm’s)—a *Noun*, (career).

So also the Adverbial Sentence, “Where a hundred realms appear,” consists of a *Conjunction*, (where)—an *Adjective*, (a)—an *Adjective*, (hundred)—a *Noun*, (realms)—and a *Verb*, (appear). Hence,

Obs. 3.—In *Proximate* Analysis, it is sufficient to discuss the *Elements of Principal Sentences*; while, in *Ultimate* Analysis, each separate Word composing an Element, is to be parsed separately

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES
of Adverbial Words, Phrases, and Sentences.

4. “Noiselessly around,
From perch to perch, the solitary bird
Passes.”
5. “How is it possible *not* to feel a profound sense of the responsibility of this Republic to all future ages.”
6. “In a moment he flew *quickly* past.”
7. “For *there* the shield of the mighty is *vilely* cast away.”
8. “Thy pencil glows *in every flower* ;”
9. “Where Sense can reach, or Fancy rove,
From hill to field, from field to grove,
Across the wave, around the sky,
There’s not a spot, nor deep, nor high,
Where the Creator has not trod,
And left the footsteps of a God.”
- “Eternal Hope! when yonder spheres sublime
Pealed their first notes to sound the march of Time,
10. Thy joyous youth began—but not to fade,
When all the sister planets have decayed :
- When, wrapt in fire, the realms of ether glow,
And Heaven’s last thunder shakes the world below,
11. Thou, undismayed, shalt o’er the ruins smile,
And light thy torch at Nature’s funeral pile!”

PREPOSITIONS.

DEF. 128.—A Word used to introduce a Phrase, showing the *relation* of its Object to the Word which the Phrase qualifies, is

A Preposition.

LIST.

- A. "Wild winds and mad waves drive the vessel *a* wreck."
- About. "We walked *about* town."
- Above. "There is a ferry *above* the falls."
- Across "*Across* the ocean came a pilgrim bark."
- Aboard. "They came *aboard* ship."
- Aboard of. "We succeeded in getting *aboard* of her."
- After "He that cometh *after* me, is preferred before me."
- Against. "He that is not for me, is *against* me."
- Along "Winds run *along* the summits of their hills."
- Amid. "We stowed them *amid*-ships."
- Amidst. "*Amidst* the mists, he thrusts his fists."
- Among "He became a great favorite *among* the boys."
- Amongst "We made diligent search *amongst* the rubbish."
- Around "The chill dews of evening were falling *around* me."
- As "He gives this *as* the latest news."
- Aslant "It struck *aslant* the beam."
- Astride. "He sat *astride* the beam."
- As for. "*As for* me and my house, we will serve the Lord."
- As to "*As to* that, I have nothing to say."
- At "He was *at* work *at* noon."
- Athwart "The dolphin leaped *athwart* her bows."
- Before "He stood *before* the people."
- Behind. "She stood *behind* a rick of barley."
- Below. "The captain was *below* decks."
- Beneath "*Beneath* the moldering ruins the brave boy sleeps."
- Beside "*Beside* its embers, red and clear, he stood."
- Besides. "There was a famine in the land, *besides* the first famine."
- Between "*Between* whom, perfect friendship has existed."
- Betwixt. "There is no difference *betwixt* them."
- Beyond "*Beyond* all doubt, he is the man."
- But "All went *but* me."

- But for "And *but for* these vile guns, he would go."
- By..... "To sail *by* Ephesus."—"They stood *by* the cross."
- Concerning..... "Concerning whom I have before written."
- Despite of..... "He will rise to fame, *despite of* all opposition."
- Devoid of..... "You live *devoid of* peace."
- During..... "This has occurred many times *during* the year."
- Ere..... "Ere another evening's close, he had gone."
- Except..... "All were invited *except* me."
- Excepting..... "Excepting that bad habit, the teacher was faultless."
- For..... "For me your tributary stores combine."
- From..... "Playful children, just let loose *from* school."
- From among.... "From *among* thousand celestial ardors."
- From between... "He came *from between* the lakes."
- From off..... "This lady-fly I take *from off* the grass."
- In..... "In the beginning."
- Instead of..... "Instead of the thorn shall come up the fir."
- In lieu of..... "She has that sum *in lieu of* dower."
- Into..... "Into these glassy eyes put light."
- Like..... "An hour *like* this may well display the emptiness of human grandeur."
- Near..... "His residence is *near* the church."
- Next..... "Plural nominatives should be placed *next* their verbs."
- Nigh..... "Come not *nigh* me."
- Notwithstanding. "Notwithstanding this, we remain friends."
- Of..... "Of the arts of peace."
- Off..... "He fell *off* the bows."
- On..... "On a bed of green sea-flowers."
- Opposite..... "Our friend lives *opposite* the Exchange."
- Over..... "High *o'er* their heads the weapons swung."
- Out of..... "Out of the cooling brine to leap."
- Past..... "We came *past* Avon."
- Per..... "Twelve hundred dollars *per* annum."
- Previous to..... "Previous to this, his character has been good."
- Respecting..... "Nothing was known *respecting* him."
- Round..... "He went *round* the parish, making complaints."
- Since..... "Since Saturday he has not been seen."
- Save..... "All, *save* this little nook of land."
- Saving..... "With habits commendable, *saving* only this—he chews tobacco."
- Through..... "Walk *through* the maple grove."
- Throughout.... "Nor once, *throughout* that dismal night."

Than	“ <i>Than</i> whom none higher sat.”
Till	“ He labored hard <i>till</i> noon.”
To	“ We purpose <i>to go to</i> Rochester to-day.”
Touching	“ <i>Touching</i> these things, whereof I am accused.”
Towards	“ They returned <i>towards</i> evening.”
Under	“ Then they went <i>under</i> the cloud.”
Underneath	“ And <i>underneath</i> his feet, he cast the darkness.”
Unlike	“ <i>Unlike</i> all that I had ever before seen.”
Until	“ We shall not return <i>until</i> Saturday.”
Unto	“ <i>Unto</i> him who rules the invisible armies of eternity.”
Up	“ The whole fleet was sailing <i>up</i> the river.”
Upon	“ He stood <i>upon</i> the highest peak.”
Via	“ This stage is for Buffalo, <i>via</i> Batavia.”
With	“ <i>With</i> cautious steps and slow.”
Within	“ Peace be <i>within</i> these walls.”
Without	“ <i>Without</i> it, what is man?”
Worth	“ He possessed an estate, <i>worth</i> five thousand pounds.”

Obs. 1.—The antecedent term of relation—the word which the Phrase, introduced by a Preposition, qualifies, may be

A *Noun*.—The *house* of God.

A *Pronoun*.—*Who* of us shall go?—I care not *which* of you.

An *Adjective*.—It is *good* for nothing.

A *Verb*.—We *love* to study.—We *delight* in improvement.

A *Participle*.—*Jumping* from a precipice.

An *Adverb*.—He is *too* wise to err.”

Obs. 2.—The antecedent term of the relation expressed by a Preposition, is sometimes understood.

EXAMPLES.—1. “O refuge
Meet for fainting pilgrims [] on this desert way.”

NOTE.—In the above and similar examples, the ellipsis of the antecedent word need not be supplied *in parsing*, unless the sense plainly requires it. But the Phrase may be parsed as qualifying the word which its Antecedent would qualify, if expressed.

2. “*Which* flung its purple o'er his path to heaven.”

Here the Phrase “to heaven” properly modifies *leading*, or a word of similar office, *understood*. But “leading,” modified by this Phrase, would qualify “path.” Hence the Phrase, “to heaven”—as a *representative* of the whole Phrase “leading to heaven”—may be attached to “path.”

Obs. 3.—Prepositions introducing Substantive and Independent Phrases, have no Antecedents.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “*As for* me and my house, we will serve the Lord.”
 2. “And, *on* the whole, the sight was very painful.”—*Todd*.
 3. “O *for* a lodge in some vast wilderness.”—*Cowper*.

Obs. 4.—The Consequent term of relation may be,

A *Word*.—“He stood before the *people*.”

A *Phrase*.—“Time spent in *receiving impertinent visits*.”

A *Sentence*.—“And cries of ‘*Live for ever*,’ struck the skies.”

Obs. 5.—The Consequent term of relation—Object—is sometimes understood.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “And the waves are white below []”
 2. “These crowd around [] to ask him of his health.”

Many grammarians call these Prepositions *Adverbs*, without giving a proper explanation. They are Prepositions, having their Objects understood. But, as the Phrases of which they form parts are always used Adverbially, the Prepositions—as *representatives* of their Phrases—are Adverbs. Hence, when thus used, each Preposition performs a double office—Prepositional, as leader of the Phrase—Adverbial, as representative of the Phrase.

Obs. 6.—The Preposition is often understood—generally when its Phrase follows Verbs of *giving, selling, coming*, etc.

- EXAMPLES.—1. Mary gave [] me a rose—Mary give a rose *to* me.
 2. I sold [] Mr. Shepard my wheat—sold wheat *to* Shepard.
 3. William has gone *from* home to-day—he will come [] home to-morrow.”
 4. These crowd *around*.—Mary gave *me* a rose.

“*Me*” and “*around*” are—in the same sense, and by the same rule—Adverbs, viz. : as *representatives* of the Adverbial Phrases to which they severally belong. As *words*, simply “*me*” is a Pronoun—Object of *to*, understood: “*around*” is a Preposition—showing a relation of “*crowd*” and *him*, understood.

Obs. 7.—Prepositions are sometimes incorporated with their Objects.

EXAMPLES.—I go *a-fishing*.—He fell *a-sleep*.—Come *a-board*.

Obs. 8.—Words commonly used as Prepositions are sometimes used in predication with Verbs.

- EXAMPLES.—1. Its idle hours are *o'er*.
2. That was not thought *of*.

OBS. 9—A Preposition commonly indicates the office of the Phrase which it introduces.

In, on, under, above, etc. indicate a relation of *place*, including the idea of *rest*.

EXAMPLES.—William's hat is $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{in} \text{ the hall,} \\ \textit{on} \text{ the stool,} \\ \textit{under} \text{ the table.} \end{array} \right.$

From, to, into, through, out of, etc., indicate a relation of *place*, with the idea of *motion*.

EXAMPLES.—We came $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{from} \text{ New York,} \\ \textit{to} \text{ Boston,} \\ \textit{through} \text{ Springfield.} \end{array} \right.$

Of, generally indicates a relation of *possession*.

EXAMPLE.—“The lay *of the last minstrel*”—the last *minstrel's* lay.


As, like, than, etc., indicate a relation of *comparison*.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “It is not fit for such *as* us
To sit with rulers of the land.”—*W. Scott*.
2. “All great, learned men, *like* me,
Once learned to read their A, B, C.”
3. “Than whom, earth holds no better man.”

During, till, since, etc., indicate a relation of *time*.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “We have vacation *during the whole month of July*.”
2. “*Since Saturday*, we have not seen him.”

But, as the kind of relation expressed by a given Preposition is not uniform, no perfect classification can be made.

 For other observations on Prepositions, see PART III.—*Prepositions*.

EXERCISES.

1. *Where streams of earthly joy exhaustless rise.*

Of . . . Shows a relation of “streams” and “joy.” Hence, a Preposition.

2. “*O refuge,*
Meet for fainting pilgrims.”

For . . . Shows a relation of “meet” and “pilgrims.” Hence, a Preposition.

3. "On the plains,
And spangled fields, and in the mazy vales,
The living throngs of earth before Him fall,
With thankful hymns, receiving from His hands
Immortal life and gladness."


On Shows a relation of [*existing* understood, which qualifies]
"throngs" and "plains and fields." Hence, a Preposition.

In Shows a relation of [*existing* understood, which qualifies]
"throngs" and "vales." Hence, a Preposition.

Of Shows a relation of "throngs" and "earth." Hence, a Preposition.

Before. . Shows a relation of "fall" and "him." Hence, a Preposition.

With. . . Shows a relation of [*worshiping*, or some equivalent word understood, which qualifies] "throngs" and "hymns."
Hence, a Preposition.

 Let the Pupils point out the Prepositions, with their several Antecedents and Objects, in the following

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES.

4. "The chief *FAULT* of Coleridge *LIES* in the style, which has been justly objected *to*, *on* account of its obscurity, general turgidness of diction, and a profusion of new-coined double epithets."

5. "Southey, among all our living poets, stands aloof, and 'alone in his glory;' for he alone of them all has adventured to illustrate, in poems of magnitude, the different characters, customs, and manners of nations.

6. To him, who, in the love of nature, holds
Communion with her visible forms, *SHE SPEAKS*
A various LANGUAGE :

7. For his gayer hours
SHE HAS a VOICE of gladness, and a SMILE
And ELOQUENCE of beauty ;

8. And she glides
Into his darker musings, with a mild
And gentle sympathy, that steals away
Their sharpness, ere he is aware.

CONJUNCTIONS.

REM.—It should be remembered that Prepositions connect words *by showing a relation*.

We have another class of Words, used *simply to connect Words and Phrases similar in construction, and to introduce Sentences*. Hence,

DEF. 129.—A Word used to join Words, Phrases, and Sentences, or to introduce a Sentence, is called a *Conjunction*.

EXAMPLE —Mary and Anna have perfect lessons *because* they study diligently.

REM. 1.—In this example, “and” connects “Mary” and “Anna”—two words having the same construction—and “because” introduces an Auxiliary Sentence.

LIST.

The following are the principal Words which are commonly used as Conjunctions :

After,*	Either,	Likewise,	Than,*
Again,	Else,	Moreover,	That,
Also,	Except,*	Nay,	Then,*
Although,*	For,*	Neither.	Therefore,
And,	Further,	Nor,	Though,*
As,*	Furthermore,	Now,	Thus,
As well as,*	Howbeit,	Notwithstanding,*	Unless,*
Because,*	However,*	Or,	When,*
Before,*	Howsoever,*	Otherwise,	Wherefore,
Being,*	If,*	Provided,*	While,*
Besides,	Inasmuch as,*	Since,*	Whilst,
Both,	In case,*	So,	Yet.
But,	Lest,*	Still,	

REM. 2.—A few other words are sometimes used as Conjunctions.

REM. 3.—The words in the above List, marked thus (*), commonly introduce Auxiliary Sentences.

OBS 1.—Conjunctions used to introduce Auxiliary Sentences, and some others, constitute also an index or type of the office of the Sentences which they introduce.

EXAMPLES.—1. “*If* he repent, forgive him.”

2. “*As* you journey, sweetly sing.”

In these examples, "if" renders its Sentence *conditional*—"as" indicates that its Sentence ("you journey") modifies "sing" in respect to *time*.

NOTE.—*When, as, since,* and many other Conjunctions used to introduce Auxiliary Sentences, are called, by some grammarians, *Conjunctive Adverbs*. "And the rest will I set in order *when* I come." We are told that "when," in the above example, is an Adverb of Time, relating to the two Verbs, "will set" and "come."

We are also told (and properly) that Adverbs of *time* are those which answer to the question "*when?*"

But does "when," in the above example, "answer to the question *when?*" Certainly not. Then it can not be an Adverb of Time. But the Auxiliary Sentence, "when I come," does answer to the question "*when.*" It tells when "I will set the rest in order." Hence the Sentence, "when I come," is an Adverb of Time; and the Word "when"—used only to introduce that Sentence—connecting it to "will set," is a Conjunction. [See the preceding observation.]

OBS. 2.—A Word used chiefly to introduce a Sentence is therefore a Conjunction. If the Sentence introduced by it is Auxiliary Adverbial in office, it may properly be called an *Adverbial Conjunction*.

Let the Pupil remember that it is the *Sentence* that is Adverbial—not the *Word* used to introduce the Sentence.

OBS. 3.—The Conjunction *nor* generally performs a secondary office—that of a negative Adverb

EXAMPLE.—"Man wants but little here below,
Nor wants that little long."

In this example "nor" introduces the Sentence, and also gives it a negative signification.

The Conjunction "*lest*" has sometimes a similar construction.

EXAMPLE.—"Love not sleep, *lest* thou come to poverty."

OBS. 4.—DOUBLE CONJUNCTIONS.—Two Conjunctions are sometimes used to introduce the same Sentence.

EXAMPLES.—1. "It seems *as if* they were instructed by some secret instinct."

2. "*And yet,* fair bow, no fabling dreams."

As though, but that, and some other words, are often used as Double Conjunctions.

OBS. 5.—*But, when* an Auxiliary Sentence precedes a Principal Sentence, the Conjunctions introducing them are not to be regarded as double, although they may be in juxtaposition. [See this Obs.]

OBS. 6.—In addition to those Words properly called Conjunctions, we have other words used to introduce Sentences—as a *secondary office*

- EXAMPLES.—1. “The grave, *that* never spoke before,
Hath found at length, a tongue to chide.”
2. “We are watchers of a beacon,
Whose light must never die.”

REM. 1.—“That never spake before,” is an Auxiliary Sentence introduced by the word “*that*.”

The *principal* office of “*that*” is *Substantive*—the Subject of “spoke.” Its *secondary* office is *Conjunctive*—introduces its Sentence and connects it with its Principal.

REM. 2.—In Example 2, the Word “*whose*” has a *Principal* office—Adjunct of “light”—and a *secondary* office—introduces its Sentence and connects it with its Principal.

[For other observations, the student is referred to PART III., CONJUNCTIONS.]

EXERCISES.

“*God created the heaven and the earth.*”

“And”...Connects “heaven” and “earth.” Hence, a Conjunction.

“*Temperance and frugality promote health and secure happiness.*”

“And”...Connects “temperance” and “frugality.” Hence, a Conjunction.

“And”...Connects “promote” and “secure.” Hence, a Conjunction.

“*And the eyes of the sleepers waxed deadly and chill.*”

“And”...Introduces a Sentence. Hence, a Conjunction.

“And”...Connects “deadly” and “chill.” Hence, a Conjunction

“*Anā hōary peaks that proudly prop the skies,
Thy dwellings are.*”

“And”...Introduces a Sentence. Hence, a Conjunction.

“That”...Is the Subject of “prop.” Hence, a Substantive.

It also introduces its Sentence, and connects it with “peaks.”

“ *My heart is awed within me when I think
Of the great miracle that still goes on
In silence round me.*”

“ *When*” . . . Introduces the Auxiliary Sentence. Hence, a Conjunction.

“ Its Sentence is Adverbial in its office. Hence, an Adverbial Conjunction.

“ *When*” is not an Element—*i. e.*, it bears no part in the structure of its Sentence. It is neither a Principal Part, nor an Adjunct; it *primarily* connects: *secondarily*, indicates the office of its Sentence. [See Obs. 1, above.]

“ *That*” . . . Is the Subject of “ goes.” Hence, a Substantive.

As a *secondary* office, “ *that*” introduces its Sentence, and connects it with “ *miracle.*”

EXCLAMATION.

DEF. 130.—A word used to express a sudden or intense emotion, is

An Exclamation.

OBS. 1.—Exclamations may consist—

1. Of Letters—as, *O! Oh! Ah! Lo!*
2. Of Words—commonly used as Nouns, Adjectives, Verbs, and Adverbs—as, *Wo! Strange! Hark! Really! Behold! Shocking!*
3. Of Phrases—*For shame!*
4. Of Sentences—“ *O, Ephraim! How can I give thee up!*”

OBS. 2.—Exclamations are followed by

Words—“ *O, Liberty!*”—“ *Ah, the treasure!*”

Phrases—“ *O, for a lodge in some vast wilderness!*”

Sentences—“ *O, bear me to some solitary cell!*”

REM.—The term *Exclamation* is preferred to *Interjection*, as being more appropriate to its office.

Exclaim—“ to cry out.” This we do with the use of Exclamations.

Interject—“ to cast between.” We very seldom *cast* these words *between* others—they are generally placed *before* other words.

WORDS OF EUPHONY.

DEF. 131.—A Word used chiefly for the sake of *sound*, or to change the *position*, *accent*, or *emphasis* of other Words in a Sentence, is

A Word of Euphony.

EXAMPLES.—1. “I think *there* is a knot of you,
Beneath that hollow tree.”

“*There*” is used to allow the Predicate “*is*” to precede its Subject, “*knot*.” In this Sentence it is not used Adverbially.

2. “I sit *me* down a pensive hour to spend.”

“*Me*” is used to throw the accent on the word “*down*.”

3. “These were thy charms, sweet village! sports like
these,

With sweet succession, taught *e'en* toil to please.”

E'en” is used to make “*toil*” emphatic.

OBS. 1.—Words of Euphony are such as commonly belong to some other “part of speech.” But they are properly called Words of Euphony when they do not perform their usual grammatical offices. They are, then, in their offices chiefly Rhetorical—being used,

(1.) To render other Words emphatic.

EXAMPLES.—1. “*Even* in their ashes live their wonted fires.”

2. “The moon *herself* is lost in heaven.”

(2.) To change the position of the parts of a Sentence.

EXAMPLES.—3. “*There* are no idlers here.”

4. “Now, *then*, we are prepared to take up the main
question.”

(3.) To preserve the rhythm in a line of poetry.

EXAMPLES.—5. “I sit *me* down a pensive hour to spend.”

6. “His teeth *they* chatter, chatter still.”

REM. 1.—It is quite idle to call—as most grammarians do—the Word *even*, in Example 1, an Adverb, modifying “live;” for its sole office is to render the Phrase “*in their ashes*” emphatic. Such office is *Rhetorical*—not Grammatical.

REM. 2.—To call the word “*there*,” in Example 3, an “Adverb of Place,” is manifestly absurd; since the Verb “are” is modified by the Adverb “here,” and hence can not, at the same time, be modified by a Word of directly the opposite signification.

REM. 3.—The same remark is also applicable to the word “*then*,” in Example 4.

OBS. 2.—Words are often *transposed*, *lengthened*, *shortened*, and in other ways changed for the sake of sound. [See “Euphony,” in Part III.]

WORDS VARYING IN THEIR ETYMOLOGY.

REM. 1.—Words are similar in *Orthoëpy* when they are pronounced with the same sound of the same letter.

EXAMPLES.—*There*, *their*—*all*, *awl*—*ant*, *aunt*.

REM. 2.—They are similar in *Orthography* when they are formed by the same letters, similarly arranged.

EXAMPLES.—*Read*, *read*—*ex'tract*, *extract*'—*wind*, *wînd*.

REM. 3.—They are similar in *Etymology* when they perform a similar office in the construction of a Phrase or of a Sentence.

REM. 4.—But it is plain that words similar in *Orthoëpy* differ in their *Orthography*—and words of similar *Orthography* perform widely different offices in different connections.

It should always be remembered by the pupil that the OFFICE of a word—not its shape—determines its Etymology.

OBS.—Among the Words of similar *Orthography* that differ in their *Etymology* are the following :

AAdj. Webster wrote *a* Dictionary.

APrep. Wild winds and mad waves drive the vessel *a* wreck.

Above.Prep. He stands *above* us.

Above.Adv. By the terms *above* specified.

AfterPrep. He that cometh *after* me is preferred before me.

AfterConj. He came *after* you left.

AfterAdj. He was in the *after* part of the ship.

- As Prep To redeem such a rebel *as* me.—*Wesley*.
 As Conj Just *as* the twig is bent the tree's inclined.
 As Adv Nature, *as* far as art can do it, should be imitated.
 As Pron Such *as* I have give I unto thee.
 Before . . . Prep He stood *before* the people.
 Before . . . Conj They kneeled *before* they fought.
 Both Adj Situated on *both* sides of the river.
 Both Pron Lepidus flatters *both*—of *both* is flattered.
 Both Conj And now he is *both* loved and respected.
 But Prep All *but* me were rewarded.
 But Conj I go—*but* I return.
 But Adv If we go; we can *but* die.
 But Verb I can not *but* rejoice at his unexpected prosperity.
 Ere Prep And *ere* another evening's close.
 Ere Conj And *ere* we could arrive [at] the point proposed.
 For Prep They traveled *for* pleasure.
 For Conj He can not be a scholar, *for* he will not study.
 Like Prep Nature all blooming *like* thee.
 Like Adj *Like* causes produce *like* effects.
 Like Verb We *like* whatever gives us pleasure.
 Like Noun We shall never see the *like* again.
 Near Adj At the *near* approach of the star of day.
 Near Prep We live *near* the springs.
 Near Adv Books were never *near* so numerous.
 Near Verb We shall *near* the light-house.
 Neither . . . Adj He can debate on *neither* side of the question.
 Neither . . . Pron We saw *neither* of them.
 Neither . . . Conj The boy could *neither* read nor write.
 Next Adj The *next* generation.
 Next Prep Adjectives should be placed *next* their substantives.
 Off Adj The *off* ox should keep the furrow.
 Off Prep William fell *off* the load.
 Only Adj Love and love *only* is the loan for love.
 Only Adv *Only* observe what a swarm is running after her.
 Opposite . . . Adj On the *opposite* bank of the river.
 Opposite . . . Prep We stood *opposite* the Exchange.
 Past Adj A *past* transaction.
 Past Prep It was *past* mid-day.
 Round Adj Like the *round* ocean.
 Round Prep Flung *round* the bier.
 Still Adj *Still* waters reflect a milder light.
 Still Adv *Still* struggling, he tries to stand.

The above examples clearly indicate that *as* is sometimes a Preposition.

REM.—Many grammarians insist that *as*, in the above and similar examples, “must be a Conjunction, because, in most cases, *it connects words in opposition.*”

The same is often true of other Prepositions.

EXAMPLES.—1. In the *city of New York.*

2. “—thy shadowy hand was seen
Writing thy *name of Death.*”—*Pollock.*

We do not claim that these examples contain words precisely in apposition—*as much so*, however, as any words claimed to be connected by *as*.

As is often used (by ellipsis of one or more words) as a Pronoun—[See REM. on *than* below.]

1. BUT.—This word, like most Conjunctions, is derived from a Saxon Verb signifying “*except*”—“set aside”—“fail,” etc. [See *Webster’s Improved Grammar.*]

In the list above given, the Word retains its original signification and *office.*

EXAMPLE.—“I can not *but* rejoice.”

Equivalent.—I can not *fail*—omit to rejoice.

2. BUT is also used instead of the words, *if it were not*, or *were it not.*

EXAMPLE.—“And *but* for these vile guns, he would himself have been a soldier.”

3. BUT sometimes supplies the places of a Relative Pronoun and a Negative Adverb.

EXAMPLE.—“I scarce can meet a monument *but* holds my younger.”

Equivalent.—I scarce can meet a monument *that* holds *not* my younger.

LIKE When this word qualifies a Noun, it is an Adjective—when it represents its Noun, it is an Adjective Pronoun. But when it shows a relation of two words, it is a Preposition.

EXAMPLES.—1. “These armies once lived, and breathed, and felt
like us.”

2. “Yet all great learned men, *like me,*
Once learned to read their A, B, C.”

THAN . . . This word always expresses comparison, and comparison implies a relation. When this relation is expressed by Words, *than* is a Preposition. When it is expressed by Sentences, and when Words, Phrases, or Sentences are merely connected by it, it is a Conjunction.

The use of it as a Preposition is sanctioned by good authority ancient and modern.

EXAMPLES.—1. "They are stronger *than* lions."

2. "Thou shalt have no other gods *than me*."—*Com Pr.*

3. "Their works are more perfect *than those* of men."

THAN always introduces a Word, a Phrase, or a Sentence, which constitutes a *second term of a comparison of inequality*.

EXAMPLES.—1. "She is *more* nice *than* wise."

"**Than**" connects words, and is therefore a Conjunction.

2. "*Than* whom none *higher* sat."

"**Than**" introduces a Phrase, and is therefore a Preposition.

3. "We have *more than* heart could wish."

REM.—"Than" is the object of "could wish," and introduces the Sentence which limits "more," hence—by virtue of the ellipsis—it is a Relative Pronoun. Supply the words suppressed by ellipsis, and "than" becomes a Preposition.

Obs. 1.—Many words are used as Prepositions or Conjunctions, according as they introduce Phrases or Sentences.

EXAMPLES.—1. John arrived *before* me.

"Before me" . . . Is a Phrase, used to modify "arrived;" hence, *Adverbial*.

"Before" Is a Preposition.

2. John arrived *before* I did.

"Before I did" . . . Is a Sentence, used to modify "arrived;" hence, *Adverbial*.

"Before" Is a Conjunction.

3. John arrived as soon *as* I.

"As I" Is a Phrase, used to modify "arrived;" hence, *Adverbial*.

4. John arrived as soon *as* I did.

"As I did" . . . Is a Sentence, used to modify "arrived;" hence, *Adverbial*.

Obs. 2.—Of the many words thus used as Prepositions and Conjunctions, custom allows two—*as* and *than*—to be followed by Pronouns in the *Nominative form*.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “Thou art wiser *than* I.”
 2. “Thou art as tall *as* I.”

OBS. 3.—But the Objective form is also used by our best writers.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “It is not fit for such as *us*
 To sit with rulers of the land.”—*W. Scott.*
 2. “Than *whom* none higher sat.”—*Milton.*

WORTH. . . Worth indicates value—and value implies a relation—and relation of words is commonly expressed by a Preposition.

EXAMPLE.—“He possessed an estate worth five hundred pounds *per annum.*”

Equivalent.—“He has an annuity *of* five hundred pounds.”

This word is used also as a Noun.

EXAMPLE.—“He was a man of great *worth.*”

Nor—composed of *not* and *other*—retains the offices of its elements.

EXAMPLE.—“*Nor* will I at my humble lot repine.”

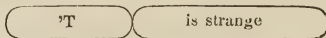
Here “*nor*” being used to modify “*repine*”—is an Adverb of Negation. But because it introduces a Sentence additional to a former Sentence, it is a Conjunction: like many other Conjunctions, it indicates the office of the Sentence which it introduces, making it negative.

SUBSTITUTION OF ELEMENTS.

OBS.—In the structure of Sentences, an Element of one form is often substituted for that of another.

1. A *Letter* is substituted for a *word*.

EXAMPLE.—’Tis strange.

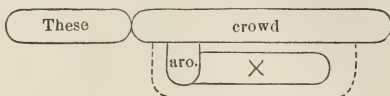


REM.—Here “’T,” as an Element in the Sentence, is a *representative* of “it,” and is a Pronoun—Subject of the Sentence. Hence, in the Nominative Case.

But “’T,” as an Element in the word “it,” is a Letter—a Consonant—Mute—Subsequent to its vowel “I”

- 2 A *Word* is substituted for a *Phrase*.

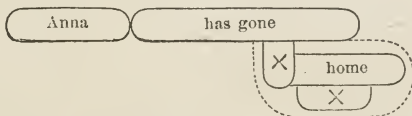
EXAMPLE 1.—These crowd around to ask him of his health.



REM. 1—"Around," as an Element of the *Sentence*, is an Adverb of Place—being used as a *representative* of the Adverbial Phrase *around him*.

"Around," as an Element of its *Phrase* is the Leader—a Preposition—showing a relation of "crowd" to *him* understood.

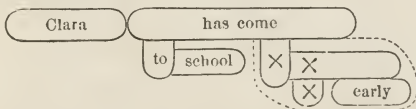
EXAMPLE 2.—Anna has gone home.



REM. 2.—"Home," as an Element in the *Sentence*, is an Adverb of Place—being used as a *representative* of the Phrase *to her home*.

"Home," as an Element in its *Phrase*, is the Subsequent—Word—Noun—Common—Objective Case—Object of *to* understood.

EXAMPLE 3.—Clara has come to school early.



REM. 3.—"Early," as an Element in the *Sentence*, is an Adverb of Time—being used as a *representative* of the Phrase *at an early hour*.

"Early," as an Element in its *Phrase*, is an Adjunct—Word—Adjective—and limits *hour* understood.

For further illustrations, see Obs. 5 and 6, page 159; see also page 23, Obs. 1, 2.

REM.—A careful examination of the genius of the English language will disclose the fact, that a great majority of words perform at the same time two or more distinct offices—as individual and as representative. The Rule to be observed in parsing is, that a word should be parsed first according to its representative office in the *Sentence*, then according to its individual office.

PART III.

SYNTAX.

REMARK 1.—IN PART II. we have given attention to the discussion of WORDS considered as Elements of Language ; embracing—

1. The *Classification* of Words, according to their *offices*.
2. The *Modification* of such Words as vary their *forms* to correspond with changes in their offices.

REM. 2.—We have now to consider the *Relations* of the various Elements of Language to one another, in the construction of Sentences.

DEF. 132.—Syntax treats of the construction of Sentences by determining the relation, agreement, and arrangement of Words, and of other Elements.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES AND DEFINITIONS TO BE NOTICED IN ANALYSIS AND CONSTRUCTION.

I. SENTENCES.

I. A SENTENCE is an assemblage of Words, so arranged as to express an entire proposition.

II. A Sentence consists of $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS} \\ \text{and} \\ \text{ADJUNCT ELEMENTS.} \end{array} \right.$

III. The PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS of a Sentence are such as are used to make the unqualified assertion.

✍ Let each Pupil make a Sentence having *Principal Elements* only.

IV. The ADJUNCTS of a Sentence are such Elements as are used to modify or describe other Elements in the Sentence.

✍ Let each Pupil make a Sentence having *Adjuncts*.

V. The PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS of a Sentence are, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{The SUBJECT,} \\ \text{The PREDICATE,} \\ \text{The OBJECT.} \end{array} \right.$

VI. The SUBJECT of a Sentence is that of which something is asserted.

VII. THE PREDICATE of a Sentence is the Word or Words that assert something of the Subject.

VIII. THE OBJECT of a Sentence is that on which the act expressed by the Predicate terminates.

✎ Let each Pupil make a Sentence, and name the *Subject*, the *Predicate*, and the *Object*.

IX. The SUBJECT of a Sentence may be { A WORD,
A PHRASE, or
X. The OBJECT of a Sentence may be { A SENTENCE.

✎ Let each Pupil make a Sentence having a *Word Subject*.

Let each Pupil make a Sentence having a *Phrase Subject*.

Let each Pupil make a Sentence having a *Sentence Subject*.

XI. A WORD used as the *Subject* or the *Object* of a Sentence may be { A NOUN { *Common* or *Proper*.
or { *Personal*,
A PRONOUN, { *Relative*,
Interrogative,
Adjective.

✎ Let each Pupil make Sentences having for their Subject—

- | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. A <i>Common Noun</i> . | 4. A <i>Relative Pronoun</i> . |
| 2. A <i>Proper Noun</i> . | 5. An <i>Interrogative Pronoun</i> . |
| 3. A <i>Personal Pronoun</i> . | 6. An <i>Adjective Pronoun</i> . |

XII. NOUNS and PRONOUNS are of the { *Masculine Gender*,
Feminine Gender, or
Neuter Gender.

XIII. NOUNS and PRONOUNS are of the { *First Person*,
Second Person, or
Third Person.

XIV. NOUNS and PRONOUNS are of the { *Singular Number*, or
Plural Number.

✎ Let the Pupil make Sentences having Nouns and Pronouns of the different *Genders*, *Persons*, and *Numbers*.

XV. THE SUBJECT of a Sentence is in the *Nominative Case*.

XVI. THE OBJECT of a Sentence is in the *Objective Case*.

XVII. THE GRAMMATICAL PREDICATE of a Sentence is { A VERB, with
or without { Another VERB,
A PARTICIPLE,
AN ADJECTIVE,
A NOUN,
A PRONOUN, or
A PREPOSITION.

✎ Let the Pupil make Sentences containing Examples of each variety of Predicate mentioned.

XVIII. A VERB in Predicate may be in the	}	INDICATIVE MODE,	{ Prior Past Tense, Past Tense, Prior Present Tense, Present Tense, Prior Future Tense, Future Tense.
		POTENTIAL MODE,	{ Prior Past Tense, Past Tense, Prior Present Tense, Present Tense.
		SUBJUNCTIVE MODE,	{ Past Tense, Present Tense.
		IMPERATIVE MODE,	{ Présent Tense.

Let the Pupil make Sentences having Verbs in each of the Modes and Tenses mentioned.

XIX. A VERB in Predicate must agree with its Subject in { *Person*
 and
Number.

XX. The ADJUNCTS of a Sentence are { PRIMARY
 or
 SECONDARY.

XXI. PRIMARY ADJUNCTS are attached to the Principal Parts of a Sentence or of a Phrase.

XXII. SECONDARY ADJUNCTS are attached to other Adjuncts.

XXIII. ADJUNCTS may consist of { WORDS,
 PHRASES, or
 SENTENCES.

Let the Pupil make Sentences containing *Words Adjuncts.*

Let the Pupil make Sentences containing *Phrases Adjuncts.*

Let the Pupil make Sentences containing *Sentences Adjuncts.*

XXIV. WORDS, PHRASES, and SENTENCES used as Adjuncts are	}	ADJECTIVES	{ <i>Qualifying,</i> { Compar. Superl. Posit. Dimin.
		or	{ <i>Specifying,</i> { Pure. Numer. Possess.
		or	{ <i>Verbal,</i> { Trans. Intrans.
		ADVERBS,	{ <i>Time,</i> <i>Place,</i> <i>Degree,</i> <i>Manner,</i> <i>Clause,</i> etc., etc.

XXV. A SENTENCE may be $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{INTRANSITIVE OR TRANSITIVE,} \\ \text{SIMPLE OR COMPOUND,} \\ \text{PRINCIPAL OR AUXILIARY.} \end{array} \right.$

XXVI. An INTRANSITIVE SENTENCE has no *Object*.

Let the Pupil make an Intransitive Sentence.

XXVII. A TRANSITIVE SENTENCE has an *Object*.

Let the Pupil make a Transitive Sentence.

XXVIII. A SIMPLE SENTENCE has all its Principal Parts single.

Let the Pupil make a Simple Sentence.

XXIX. A COMPOUND SENTENCE has some of its Principal Parts compound.

Let the Pupil make a Compound Sentence.

XXX. A PRINCIPAL SENTENCE asserts a Principal Proposition.

XXXI. An AUXILIARY SENTENCE asserts a Dependent Proposition.

Let the Pupil make a Complex Sentence, and distinguish the Principal Sentence from the Auxiliary Sentence.

XXXII. CONJUNCTIONS introduce Sentences and connect Words, Phrases, and Sentences.

XXXIII. A PREPOSITION shows a relation of its object to the word which its Phrase qualifies.

XXXIV. An EXCLAMATION has no dependent construction.

XXXV. A WORD OF EUPHONY is, in its office, chiefly *Rhetorical*.

II. PHRASES.

XXXVI. A PHRASE is a combination of Words not constituting an entire proposition, but performing a distinct office in the structure of a Sentence or of another Phrase.

XXXVII. A PHRASE consists of $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS,} \\ \text{and} \\ \text{ADJUNCT ELEMENTS.} \end{array} \right.$

XXXVIII. The PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS of a Phrase are those words necessary to its structure.

Let the Pupil make a Phrase having Principal Elements only.

XXXIX. The ADJUNCTS of a Phrase are Elements used to modify or describe other Elements.

Let the Pupil make a Phrase having Adjuncts.

XL. The PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS of a Phrase are $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{The LEADER and} \\ \text{The SUBSEQUENT.} \end{array} \right.$

XLI. The LEADER of a Phrase is the Word used to introduce the Phrase—generally connecting its Subsequent to the Word which the Phrase qualifies.

XLII. The SUBSEQUENT of a Phrase is the Element which follows the Leading Word as its Object.

Let the Pupil make Phrases and distinguish the Leaders from the Subsequents.

XLIII. The ADJUNCTS may consist of $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{Adjective} \\ \text{or} \\ \textit{Adverbial} \end{array} \right\}$ WORDS, PHRASES, OR SENTENCES.

Let the Pupil make Sentences having Adjective Words—Phrases—Sentences.

XLIV. A PHRASE is $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{TRANSITIVE OR} \\ \text{INTRANSITIVE.} \end{array} \right.$

XLV. A PHRASE having a Transitive Verb or Participle as a Principal Element, is a TRANSITIVE PHRASE.

Let the Pupil make a Transitive Phrase; 1. Participial—2. Infinitive.

XLVI. A PHRASE whose Subsequent is a Noun or a Pronoun, or a Verb or a Participle having no Object, is an INTRANSITIVE PHRASE.

Let the Pupil make an Intransitive Phrase; 1. Prepositional—2. Participial—3. Infinitive—4. Independent.

XLVII. A PHRASE is, *in form*, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{PREPOSITIONAL,} \\ \text{PARTICIPIAL,} \\ \text{INFINITIVE, or} \\ \text{INDEPENDENT.} \end{array} \right.$

XLVIII. A PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE is one that is introduced by a Preposition—having a Substantive Element as its object of relation.

Let the Pupil make a Prepositional Phrase.

XLIX. A PARTICIPIAL PHRASE is one that is introduced by a Participle, being followed by an Object of an action, or by an Adjunct.

Let the Pupil make a Participial Phrase.

L. An INFINITIVE PHRASE is one that is introduced by the Preposition TO—having a Verb in the Infinitive Mode as its Object of relation.

Let the Pupil make an Infinitive Phrase.

LI. An INDEPENDENT PHRASE is one that is introduced by a Noun or a Pronoun—having a Participle depending on it.

Let the Pupil make an Independent Phrase.

LII. A PHRASE is COMPOUND when it has two or more Leaders or Subsequents.

Let the Pupil make a Compound Phrase—Compound Leaders—Compound Subsequent.

LIII. A PHRASE is COMPLEX when one of its Principal Parts is qualified by another Phrase.

Let the Pupil make a Complex Phrase.

LIV. A PHRASE is MIXED when it has one or more *Transitive*, and one or more *Intransitive*, Subsequents.

Let the Pupil make a Mixed Phrase.

REM. 1.—Words combined into a Sentence, have a relation to each other—a relation which often determines their *forms*. The Principal Modifications of words, as treated in PART II. of this work, are those of form—and these forms vary according to their relation to other words.

But the *form* does not always determine the office of words in a Sentence.

I may say, “Frederick assisted James,”
and “James assisted Frederick.”

Here, although I use the same words and the same *form* of those words, I make two widely different assertions. The difference in the assertions in these examples is caused by the change of *position* of the Words. Hence the laws of AGREEMENT and ARRANGEMENT of words in the construction of Sentences.

REM. 2.—As Diagrams are of great service in constructing Sentences, by serving as tests of the grammatical correctness of a composition, they are inserted in PART III. It is hoped that the Teacher will not fail to require the Class to write Sentences which shall contain words in every possible condition, and in every variety of modification. Young Pupils and beginners should be required to place the Sentences in Diagrams.

EXERCISES IN THE ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

REM.—Teachers will find the use of the blackboard of great service in the Analysis of Sentences and of Phrases.

Of the many MODELS for Analysis, used by successful Teachers, the following are given, in addition to those found in PART I.

FIRST MODEL.

“An hour like this may well display the emptiness of human grandeur.”

ELEMENTS.

The Modified Subject* An hour like this
The Logical† Predicate..... { may well display the emptiness of human grandeur.
The Modified‡ Predicate..... may well display
The Modified Object the emptiness of human grandeur.

ADJUNCTS.

Of the Subject..... { An a Word.
 like this..... a Phrase.
Of the Predicate..... well..... a Word.
Of the Object..... { the..... a Word.
 of human grandeur..... a Phrase.

SECOND MODEL.

“How dear to my heart are the scenes of my childhood.”

<i>Principal Elements.</i>	<i>Modified Elements.</i>	<i>Adjunct Elements.</i>
<i>Sub</i> ... “Scenes.” ..	{ The scenes of my childhood.....	{ The..... a Word. Of my childhood. a Phrase.
<i>Pred</i> .. “Are dear.”	{ Are how dear to my heart.....	{ How..... a Word. To my heart..... a Phrase.

THIRD MODEL.

“The lowing HERD WINDS slowly o’er the lea”

<i>The Modified Subject.</i>	<i>The Modified Predicate.</i>		
“The lowing HERD”	“WINDS slowly o’er the lea.”		
<i>The Grammatic Subject.</i>	<i>Its Adjuncts.</i>	<i>The Grammatic Predicate.</i>	<i>Its Adjuncts.</i>
HERD.....	{ The..... } lowing	WINDS.....	{ Slowly o’er the lea

EXERCISES ON THE CHART.

REM. 1.—The following *Exercises* will exhibit the proper method of using the Chart in Etymological Parsing.

REM. 2.—If the *large* Chart is used, the attention of the whole Class should be directed to it—one of the Students using a “pointer,” as he repeats the construction of each word, according to the formulæ given below.

REM. 3.—It is well for beginners in Etymological Parsing to have the Sentence to be parsed first placed in Diagram on the blackboard.

1. *Animals run.*



Animals... An Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—SUBJECT—WORD—NOUN—COMMON—MASCULINE Gender—THIRD Person—PLURAL Number—NOMINATIVE Case.

* See page 25.

† See page 26.

Run An Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—
PREDICATE—VERB—INDICATIVE MODE—PRESENT Tense.

2. *Mary is reading.*

Mary is reading

Mary An Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—
SUBJECT—WORD—NOUN—PROPER—FEMININE Gender—
THIRD Person—SINGULAR Number—NOMINATIVE Case.

Is reading An Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—
PREDICATE—VERB and PARTICIPLE—Verb is in the IN-
DICATIVE Mode—PRESENT Tense.

Reading An Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—
used in PREDICATE with “is.”

3. *He might have been respected.*

He might have been respected

He An Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—
SUBJECT—WORD—PRONOUN—PERSONAL—MASCULINE Gen-
der—THIRD Person—SINGULAR Number—NOMINATIVE
Case.

Might have
been respected } An Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—
PREDICATE—two VERBS, and two PARTICIPLES—Verb is
in the POTENTIAL Mode—PRIOR PAST Tense.

4. *His palsied hand waxed strong.*

hand waxed strong
His palsi'd

His An Element in the SENTENCE—ADJUNCT—PRIMARY—
WORD—ADJECTIVE—SPECIFYING—POSSESSIVE.

Palsied An Element in the Sentence—ADJUNCT—PRIMARY—
WORD—ADJECTIVE—VERBAL—INTRANSITIVE.

Hand An Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—
SUBJECT—WORD—NOUN—COMMON—NEUTER Gender—
THIRD Person—SINGULAR Number—NOMINATIVE Case.

Waxed strong . An Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—
PREDICATE—VERB and ADJECTIVE—Verb is in the IN-
DICATIVE Mode—PAST Tense.

Strong An Element in the SENTENCE—ADJECTIVE used in PRE-
DICATE with “waxed.”

5. *That good men sometimes commit faults, can not be denied.*

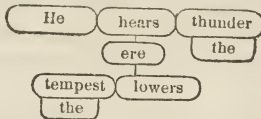


That good men } An Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—
 sometime } SUBJECT—SENTENCE—SUBSTANTIVE—SIMPLE—TRANS-
 commit faults, } ITIVE.

Can be denied... An Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—
 PREDICATE—two VERBS and a PARTICIPLE—Verb is in
 the POTENTIAL Mode—PRESENT Tense.

Not An Element in the SENTENCE—ADJUNCT—PRIMARY—
 WORD—ADVERB of Negation.

6. *He hears the thunder ere the tempest lowers.*



He An Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—
 SUBJECT—WORD—PRONOUN—PERSONAL—MASCULINE Gen-
 der—THIRD Person—SINGULAR Number—NOMINATIVE
 Case.

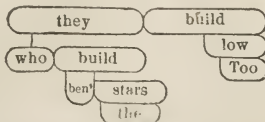
Hears An Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—
 PREDICATE—VERB—INDICATIVE Mode—PRESENT Tense.

The..... An Element in the SENTENCE—ADJUNCT—PRIMARY—
 WORD—ADJECTIVE—SPECIFYING—PURE.

Thunder..... An Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—
 OBJECT—WORD—NOUN—COMMON—NEUTER Gender—
 THIRD Person—SINGULAR Number—OBJECTIVE Case.

Ere the tem- } An Element in the SENTENCE—ADJUNCT—PRIMARY—
 pest lowers... } SENTENCE—ADVERB—INTRANSITIVE.

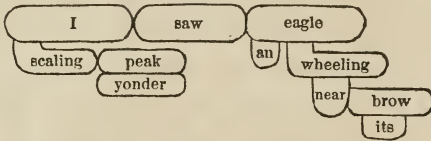
7. *Too low they build who build beneath the stars.*



Too An Element in the SENTENCE—ADJUNCT—SECONDARY—
 WORD—ADVERB—of Degree.

- Low.....An Element in the SENTENCE—ADJUNCT—PRIMARY—WORD—ADVERB—of Place.
- They.....An Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—SUBJECT—WORD—PERSONAL—MASCULINE Gender—THIRD PERSON—PLURAL Number—NOMINATIVE Case.
- Build.....An Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—PREDICATE—VERB—INDICATIVE Mode—PRESENT Tense.
- Who build be- } An Element in the SENTENCE—ADJUNCT—PRIMARY—neath the stars } SENTENCE—ADJECTIVE—SIMPLE—INTRANSITIVE.
- WhoAn Element in the Auxiliary SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—SUBJECT—WORD—PRONOUN—RELATIVE—MASCULINE Gender—THIRD PERSON—PLURAL Number—NOMINATIVE Case.
- Build.....An Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—VERB—INDICATIVE Mode—PRESENT Tense.
- Beneath the } An Element in the SENTENCE—ADJUNCT—SECONDARY—stars..... } PHRASE—ADVERBIAL—PREPOSITIONAL—INTRANSITIVE.

8. *“Scaling yonder peak,
I saw an eagle wheeling near its brow.”*



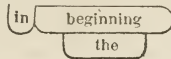
- Scaling yonder } An Element in the SENTENCE—an ADJUNCT—PRIMARY—peak } a PHRASE—ADJECTIVE—PARTICIPIAL—TRANSITIVE.
- I.....An Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—SUBJECT—WORD—PRONOUN—PERSONAL—MASCULINE Gender—FIRST PERSON—SINGULAR Number—NOMINATIVE Case.
- Saw.....An Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—PREDICATE—VERB—INDICATIVE Mode—PAST Tense.
- An.....An Element in the SENTENCE—an ADJUNCT—PRIMARY—WORD—ADJECTIVE—SPECIFYING—PURE.
- Eagle.....An Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—OBJECT—WORD—NOUN—COMMON—MASCULINE Gender—THIRD PERSON—SINGULAR Number—OBJECTIVE Case.

Wheeling near } An Element in the SENTENCE—an ADJUNCT—PRIMARY—
 its brow } PHRASE—ADJECTIVE—PARTICIPIAL—INTRANSITIVE.
 Near its brow . . . An Element in the PHRASE—an ADJUNCT—SECONDARY
 —PHRASE—ADVERBIAL—PREPOSITIONAL—INTRANSITIVE.

REM.—In the analysis of a Complex Sentence (see OES. p. 42), an Auxiliary Sentence is found to perform an individual office, and accordingly it is parsed as *one Etymological Element* of the Principal Sentence. After it has been thus parsed, it should itself be analyzed, and the Words and Phrases of which it is composed, be parsed according to their respective offices. The same remark is applicable to Phrases. [See Exercise 7, above, and 2, below.]

ANALYSIS OF PHRASES BY THE CHART.

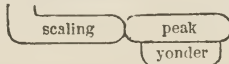
EXERCISES.

1. *In the beginning* (a Prepositional Phrase).

In An Element in the PHRASE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—the LEADER—a PREPOSITION.

The An Element in the PHRASE—an ADJUNCT—WORD—ADJECTIVE.

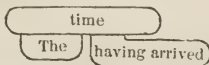
Beginning . . . An Element in the PHRASE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—the SUBSEQUENT—a WORD—NOUN—OBJECT.

2. "*Scaling yonder peak*" (a Participial Phrase)

Scaling An Element in the PHRASE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—the LEADER—a PARTICIPLE—TRANSITIVE.

Yonder An Element in the PHRASE—an ADJUNCT—WORD—ADJECTIVE.

Peak An Element in the PHRASE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—the SUBSEQUENT—a WORD—NOUN—OBJECT.

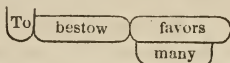
3. "*The time having arrived*" (an Independent Phrase).

The An Element in the PHRASE—an ADJUNCT—WORD—ADJECTIVE.

Time An Element in the PHRASE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—the LEADER—a NOUN—INDEPENDENT CASE.

Having arrived . . . } An Element in the PHRASE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—the SUBSEQUENT—a PARTICIPLE—INTRANSITIVE.

4. *To bestow many favors* (an Infinitive Phrase).



To An Element in the PHRASE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—the LEADER—a PREPOSITION.

Bestow An Element in the PHRASE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—a part of the SUBSEQUENT—a VERB—INFINITIVE Mode—TRANSITIVE.

Many An Element in the PHRASE—an ADJUNCT—ADJECTIVE.

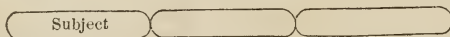
Favors An Element in the PHRASE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—a part of the SUBSEQUENT—OBJECT—WORD—NOUN.

REM.—Exercises like the above are well calculated to *prepare* the Student for Exercises in Syntax; and when he shall have learned the Rules of Syntax, he should combine the above Exercises with the application of those Rules.

SYNTAX OF THE ELEMENTS OF SENTENCES.

I. *Of the Principal Elements.*

(1.) THE SUBJECT.



RULE 1.—The *Subject* of a Sentence must be in the *Nominative Case*.

Obs. 1.—The Subject of a Sentence is always *Substantive* in its office. [See p. 25, Obs. 2.]

Obs. 2.—The Subject of a Sentence may be { A Word,
A Phrase, or
A Sentence.

EXAMPLES.

1. A Word. { (a) *Noun* . . . 1. " *Virtue* secures happiness."
- { (b) *Pronoun*. 2. " *He* plants his footsteps in the sea."
2. A Phrase 3. " *His being a minister*, prevented his rising to civil power "

4. "To give good gifts and to be benevolent, are often very different things."

3. A Sentence 5. "That all men are created equal, is a self-evident truth."

REM.—Whatever is *peculiar* to Pronouns, is discussed under the RULE for Pronouns. We now proceed to discuss what is common to Nouns, Pronouns, Phrases, and Sentences, considered as *Subjects of Sentences*.

OBS. 3.—The Subject of a Sentence may be ascertained by its answering to the Interrogatives *Who?* or *What?* placed before the Predicate. Thus, in the Examples above—

What "secures happiness?" Ans.—"Virtue."

Who "plants his footsteps in the sea?" Ans.—"He."

What "prevented his rising to civil power?" } Ans.—"His being a minister."

What "is a self-evident truth?" Ans.—"That all men are created equal."

What "are often different things?" Ans.—"To give good gifts and to be benevolent."

REM.—In parsing Phrases and Auxiliary Sentences, the same Rules are applicable as those given for Word Elements.

SUBJECT WORD.

OBS. 4.—A Subject *Word* must be a *Noun* or a *Pronoun*.

(a.) THE FORM OF THE NOMINATIVE.

OBS. 5.—Because English Nouns are not varied in form to denote the Case (except the Possessive), much attention is required in giving them their proper *position* in a Sentence. [See REMARK 1, p. 178.]

But when the Subject of a Sentence is a Personal Pronoun, the form indicates the Subject.

(b.) POSITION OF THE NOMINATIVE.

NOTE I.—In *position*, the Subject of a Sentence commonly precedes the Verb.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Animals* RUN.

2. *Resources* ARE DEVELOPED.

3. *Virtue* SECURES happiness.

4. "The *king* of shadows LOVES a shining mark."

5. "The *sword* and the *plague-spot* with death STREW the plain."

EXCEPTION 1.—In *Interrogative Sentences*, the Subject is placed after the Verb, when the Verb constitutes a complete Predicate.

EXAMPLE.—“*Hears HE not the bursting anguish?*”

EXCEPTION 2.—When the Predicate of an Interrogative Sentence consists of two Verbs, or a Verb and a Participle, Adjective, Noun, etc., the Subject is placed after the first word of the Predicate.

EXAMPLES.—*Is HE injured?—Is SHE kind?—Is HE a scholar?—Must I leave thee?*

OBS. 1.—But the Interrogatives, *who*, *which*, and *what*, used as Subjects, precede their Verbs.

EXAMPLES.—“*WHO will show us any good?*”

“*WHAT can compensate for loss of character?*”

“*WHICH shall be taken first?*”

EXCEPTION 3.—The Subject follows the Predicate, or the first Word of the Predicate, in *Declarative Sentences*, when the Conjunction *if*, used to introduce a conditional or modifying Sentence, is omitted.

EXAMPLE.—“*Dost THOU not, Hassan, lay these dreams aside, I'll plunge thee headlong in the whelming tide.*”

EXCEPTION 4.—When the word *there* is used only to introduce the Sentence.

EXAMPLES.—1. “*There is a CALM for those who weep.*”

2. ——— “*There breathes not a SOUND, While friends in their sadness are gathering round.*”

EXCEPTION 5.—When the Verb is in the Imperative Mode.

EXAMPLE.—“*Turn YE, turn YE at my reproof.*”

EXCEPTION 6.—By the poets and public speakers, for rhetorical effect.

EXAMPLES.—1. “*Loud peals the THUNDER.*”

2. “*Perish the groveling THOUGHT.*”

OBS. 2.—When one word includes in its signification many others, expressed in the same connection, the general term is the proper Subject of the Verb; and the included terms may be regarded as explanatory, and, therefore, independent in construction. [See Independent Case, p. 85.]

EXAMPLE.—“*All sink before it—comfort, joy, and wealth.*”

Some teachers prefer to supply the ellipsis—which is not improper.

OBS. 3.—The Subject of an Imperative Verb is commonly suppressed.

EXAMPLE.—“*[] Take each man's censure, but [] reserve thy judgment.*”

Obs. 4.—But it is sometimes expressed.

EXAMPLE.—“Go *ye* into all the world.”

Obs. 5.—It is sometimes accompanied by an explanatory word.

EXAMPLE.—“*Ye* rapid FLOODS, give way.” [See “Independent Case.”]

NOTE II.—Unnecessary repetition of the Subject should be avoided.

Obs. 1.—This principle is violated in the following Example:

“His teeth, *they* chatter, chatter still.”

Obs. 2.—But this practice is allowable, when necessary to a proper rhetorical effect.

EXAMPLES.—Our *Fathers*, where are *they*? And the *Prophets*, do *they* live for ever?

Obs. 3.—The agent of an action is commonly the Subject of the Sentence, but the agent of an action expressed by an Infinitive Verb, may be in the Nominative or in the Objective Case.

1. *Nominative*.—I purpose *to go*.

2. *Objective*.—I invited *him to go*.

Obs. 4.—The agent of an action expressed by a Participle is commonly in the Possessive Case.

EXAMPLES.—I heard of *your going* to Boston.

John's joining the army was unexpected by his friends.

Obs. 5.—But it may be in the Nominative, in the Objective, and in the Independent Case.

EXAMPLES.

Nominative.—“*Scaling* yonder peak, *I* saw an eagle

Objective.—*Wheeling* near its brow.”

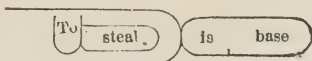
Independent.—The *hour having arrived*, we commenced the exercises.

REM.—Hence, the agent of an action can not always be regarded as the Subject of a Sentence.

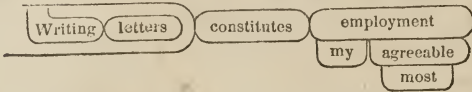
X

SUBJECT PHRASE.

1. “To steal is base.”



2. "Writing letters constitutes my most agreeable employment."



Obs. 6.—A Subject Phrase constitutes one distinct Element in the structure of a Sentence, and should be construed and parsed in the same manner as a Subject Word. Thus,

In Sentence 1, "To steal" is a Phrase—in *form*, *Infinitive*;
in *office*, *Substantive*; for it is

the Subject of "is base."

"Writing letters" is a Phrase—in *form*, *Participial*;
in *office*, *Substantive*; for it is the Subject of "constitutes employment."

Obs. 7.—After a Phrase *as such* has been parsed, it should be analyzed, by resolving it into its constituent Elements. Thus, in the Phrase "to steal," "to" is a *Preposition*—the *Leader* of the Infinitive Phrase; "steal," is a *Verb, Infinitive Mode*—the Subsequent of the Phrase, and Object of the Preposition "to."

And in the Phrase "writing letters," "writing" is a *Participle*—the *Leader* of the Participial Phrase; "letters" is a *Noun*—the Subsequent of the Phrase, and Object of the action expressed by "writing."

FORM OF THE SUBJECT PHRASE.

Obs. 8.—The Phrases commonly used as Subjects of Sentences, are the *Infinitive* and the *Participial*—Prepositional and Independent Phrases being seldom thus used. [See CLARK'S ANALYSIS, page 109, *note*.]

POSITION OF THE SUBJECT PHRASE.

NOTE III.—In Position, the Subject Phrase commonly *precedes* its Predicate.

EXAMPLES.—1. *To do good* is the DUTY of all men.

2. *Managing the household affairs* NOW CONSTITUTES the sum of my employments.

Obs. 1.—EXCEPTION.—The Subject Phrase sometimes *follows* its Predicate.

EXAMPLE.—"The sure way to be cheated is, *to fancy ourselves more cunning than others.*"

REM. 1.—"*To fancy ourselves more cunning than others,*" is the Subject. "Is way," is the Predicate.

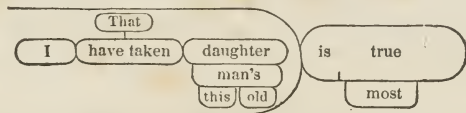
REM. 2.—This position generally obtains, when the Indefinite Pronoun *it* is placed instead of the Phrase. “*It*” precedes, and the Phrase follows the Verb.

EXAMPLE.—It is the duty of all to *do good to others*.

REM. 3.—In parsing Examples like these, the Phrase is to be regarded as explanatory of the Pronoun *it*—used to define the Indefinite Word—and is, in its office, analogous to a Word used to explain a preceding Noun. [See Independent Case, Obs. 2, p. 85.]

SUBJECT SENTENCES.

“*That I have taken this old man’s daughter* is most true.



Obs. 2.—In Examples like the above we have two Sentences—one, *Principal*, the other *Auxiliary* or *Subordinate*. The Auxiliary Sentence is an Element in the Principal—the *Subject*, and should be parsed accordingly.

Thus, in the above Complex Sentence, the Principal Sentence is *Simple, Intransitive*, having one Subject—“*That I have taken this old man’s daughter* ;” one Predicate—“*is true* ;” and one Adjunct—“*most*.”

Obs. 3.—After an Auxiliary Sentence has been parsed, as one Element in its Principal Sentence, it should be analyzed by resolving it into its constituent Elements. Thus, in the Auxiliary Sentence given above,

“*That*” Introduces the Sentence ; hence, a *Conjunction*.

“*I*” Is the Subject of its Sentence ; hence, a *Substantive*.

“*Have taken*” . Is the Predicate of its Sentence ; a *Verb* and *Participle*.

“*This*” Is an Adjunct of “*man*” [’s] ; hence, an *Adjective*.

“*Old*” Is an Adjunct of “*man*” [’s] ; hence, an *Adjective*.

“*Man’s*” Is an Adjunct of “*daughter* ;” hence, an *Adjective*.

“*Daughter*” . . . Is the Object of “*have taken* ;” hence, a *Substantive*.

Obs. 4.—The Subject Sentence is commonly—not always—introduced by the Conjunction “*that*.” [See Examples below.]

POSITION OF SUBJECT SENTENCES.

NOTE IV.—A Subject Sentence is placed before its Predicate.

EXAMPLES.—1. “*That we differ in opinion* IS NOT STRANGE.”

2. “*How he came by it*, SHALL BE DISCLOSED in the next chapter.”

OBS. 1.—EXCEPTIONS.—When the Pronoun *it* is substituted for a Subject Sentence, the Pronoun *precedes*, and the Sentence for which it stands is placed *after* the Verb.

EXAMPLE.—“It is probable *that we shall not meet again.*”

OBS. 2.—In parsing Sentences like the above, we are to parse “it” as the grammatical Subject of the Principal Sentence, and the whole Auxiliary Sentence as explanatory of the word “it”—a Logical Adjunct of “it.” [See “Logical Adjunct,” p. 29.]

Let the Class make Sentences, which shall be correct examples of the several *Notes*, *Observations*, and *Remarks*, under Rule 1.



EXERCISES.

EXAMPLES FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

1. There is no *union* here of hearts,
That finds not here an end ;
2. Were this frail *world* our final rest,
Living or dying *none* were blest,
3. Thus *star* by star declines,
Till all are passed away ;
4. As *morning* high and higher shines,
To pure and perfect day :
5. Nor sink those *stars* in empty night,
But hide themselves in heaven's own light.

MODEL.

“*Friend after friend departs.*”



ANALYSIS.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS	{ <i>Subject</i> . . . “Friend” } { <i>Predicate</i> . . . “departs.” }	} Simple Sentence } Intransitive.
ADJUNCT ELEMENT . . .	{ <i>Of the Subject</i> . . } { <i>Of the Predicate</i> . . }	} “After friend.” a Phrase.
THE LEADER	<i>After</i>	a Preposition.
THE SUBSEQUENT	<i>Friend</i>	a Noun.

PARSING.

“Friend” is an Element in the Sentence.

Principal Element.

Subject.

Word.

Noun.

Common.

Third Person.

Singular Number.

Nominative Case—according to

Rule 1st. *The Subject of a Sentence must be in the Nominative Case.*

Thus analyze all the Sentences in the foregoing and in the following “Examples,” and parse the Subjects of each.

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES

1. “Rewarding and punishing actions by any other rule, would appear much harder to be accounted for by minds formed as he has formed ours.”—*Bp. Butler.*

2. “*What time he took orders, doth not appear.*”—*Life of Butler.*

3. “That every day has its pains and sorrows, is universally experienced.”

4. “My hopes and fears start up alarmed.”

5. “Who shall tempt, with wandering feet,
The dark, unfathomed, infinite abyss?”

6. “Not a drum was heard, nor a funeral note.

7. “Not half of our heavy task was done.”

8. “Few and short were the prayers we said.”

9. “A chieftain’s daughter seemed the *maid.*”

10. “Her satin snood, her silken plaid,
Her golden brooch, such birth betrayed.”

GRAMMATIC FALLACIES.

REM.—Let the Pupils correct the errors of the following Sentences, and give the authority for every criticism, by a proper reference to Rule I., or to Notes and Observations under the Rule.

1. “His wealth and *him* bid adieu to each other.”—*Priestly.*

2. “My sister and me were both invited.”

3. “We have not learned whom else were invited.”

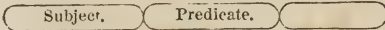
4. “Scotland and thee did each in other live.”—*Dryden.*

5. “Tell me in sadness whom is she you love.”—*Shakspeare.*

6. “Him I most loved fell at Gettysburg.”

7. "Them are the boys we saw."
8. "The rustic's sole response was, 'Them's my sentiments.'"
9. "Has thee been to the yearly meeting?"

II. *The Predicate.*



REM. 1.—In a Sentence, it is the office of the Predicate to make the assertion. It declares *existence, state, change*, or an *act*, performed or received.

REM. 2.—A Predicate may consist of *one* Word or of a *combination* of Words. If of one Word, it must be a Verb.

Robert *studies*.

And, in addition, it may have

- A second Verb.....Robert *does study*.
- A Participle.....Robert *is studying*.
- An Adjective.....Robert *is studious*.
- A Noun.....Robert *is a student*.
- A Pronoun.....It *is I*—If I *were you*.
- A Preposition.....Its idle hopes *are o'er*.

It may also consist of two Verbs and one or more Participles, etc.

WE MIGHT HAVE WALKED—WE MIGHT HAVE BEEN LOVED.

Obs. 1.—When a Predicate consists of more than one Word, the last constitutes the essential part of the Predicate. The other Words are Auxiliary, and are used to indicate *Voice, Mode, Tense*, and sometimes *Person* and *Number*. Thus, in the Sentence, "I may have been loved," the Word "loved" is the essential part of the Predicate—"been," is an Auxiliary, the principal office of which is to denote the *Voice*; "have," denotes the *Tense*; "may," denotes the *Mode*. [See p. 123.]

Obs. 2.—Every complete Predicate must have a Subject, expressed or understood.

VERBS.

RULE 2.—A Verb in Predicate must agree with its Subject in Number and Person.

REM.—This rule requires that the *form* of a Verb be determined by its Subject. Strictly speaking, Verbs have no Number and Person. The term is used to denote a variation in the form of a Verb to correspond with the Number and Person of its Subject. Thus,

In the Singular Number, no Suffix is used for the First Person ; as, I walk.

Est or *et* is added for the Second Person, solemn style.

EXAMPLE.—Thou walkest.

S is added for the Third Person Singular ; as, John walks.

In the Plural Number, Verbs are not varied to denote the Persons of their Subjects.

EXAMPLES.—We walk—ye walk—they walk.


NUMBER.

NOTE I.—One Subject in the Singular Number requires its Verb to be in the Singular.

REM.—This note applies alike to Words, to Phrases, and to Sentences.

EXAMPLES.

- Word Subjects* . . . 1. "EARTH *keeps* me here awhile."
 2. "KNOWLEDGE *reaches* or *may reach* every home."
Phrase Subjects . . . 3. "MY LEAVING HOME *does not please* you."
 4. "TO DISPUTE THE DOCTOR *requires* fortitude."
Sentence Subjects . . . 5. "THAT ALL MEN ARE CREATED EQUAL, *is* a self-evident truth."
 6. "HOW HE CAME BACK AGAIN, *doth not appear*."

 Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.

1. "Where are you, my boy? Here I are."
2. "He dare not call me coward."
3. "I wonder at what thou says on that subject."
4. "And many a steed in his stables were seen."
5. "There are pupils in this class, whose progress have been astonishing."

NOTE II.—Two or more Singular Subjects, taken separately, require the Verb to be Singular.

EXAMPLES.

- Word Subjects* . . . 1. "WILLIAM OF WARNER *has* my knife."
 2. "DISEASE OF POVERTY *follows* the lazy track of the sluggard."
 3. "My POVERTY, but not my WILL, *consents*."—*Shakspeare*


4. "Every PHRASE and every FIGURE which he uses tends to render the picture more lively and complete."—*Blair*.

Phrase Subjects. . . 5. "WRITING LETTERS OF READING NOVELS occupies her evening hours."

6. "TO BE OR NOT TO BE, is the question."

7. "TO SHOOT OR BE SHOT, was my only alternative."

Sentence Subjects. . . 8. "That my client aided in the rescue, or that he was present at the time of it, DOES NOT APPEAR from the evidence adduced."

 Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.

1. "Neither history nor tradition furnish such information."
2. "Neither Charles nor his brother were qualified to support such a system."
3. "Nor war nor wisdom yield our Jews delight."
4. "He or his deputy were authorized to commit the culprit."
5. "For outward matter or event fashion not the character within."

NOTE III.—A Collective Noun, indicating *Unity*, requires its Verb to be in the Singular Number.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "A NATION has been smitten."
 2. "The SENATE HAS REJECTED the bill."
 3. "Congress has adjourned."


EXCEPTION.—The Logical Subject of a Sentence is sometimes the Object of a Phrase used to qualify the Grammatical Subject. Then, when the Object of the Phrase is plural in form, and indicates that the parts of which the number is composed are taken severally, the Verb should be Plural.

EXAMPLE.—A part of the STUDENTS have left.

Here "students"—the name of many taken severally—is the Logical Subject of "have left." and requires the Verb to be Plural, although "part," the Grammatical Subject, is Singular.

OBS. 3.—But Nouns *not Collective* are not varied in number by their Adjuncts.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "The progress of his forces was impeded."—*Allen*.
 2. The selection of appropriate examples requires taste.
 3. "All appearances of modesty are favorable and prepossessing."—*Blair*.

 Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.

1. "A series of exercises in false grammar *are* introduced toward the end."—*Irost's Grammar*.
2. "The number of the names were about one hundred and twenty."—*Ware's Grammar*.
3. "The number of school districts have increased since last year."
4. "In old English, this species of words were numerous."
5. "Have the legislature power to prohibit assemblies."
6. "Above one half of them was cut off before the return of spring."
7. "The greater part of their captures was sacrificed."
8. "While still the busy world is treading o'er
The paths they trod five thousand years before."
9. "Small as the number of inhabitants are, their poverty is extreme."
10. "The number of bounty-jumpers are enormous."

NOTE IV.—One Subject in the Plural Number should have a Verb in the Plural.

EXAMPLES.

- Word Subjects*. . . . 1. "WINGS *were* on her feet."
2. "They that seek me early shall find me."

EXCEPTION 1.—Nouns, Plural in form, often constitute the titles of books. Such names, used as Subjects of Sentences, require their Verbs to be Singular.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "The 'Pleasures of Hope' is a splendid poem."
2. "The 'Lives of the Martyrs' is now out of print."

EXCEPTION 2.—A Plural Subject, modified by a Phrase whose Subsequent is the Logical Subject of the Sentence, and Singular in form, may have a Singular Verb.

EXAMPLE.—Two thirds of my hair has fallen off.

NOTE V.—Two or more Subjects connected by *and* require the Verb to be in the Plural.

EXAMPLES.

- Word Subjects*. . . . 1. "The VIVACITY and SENSIBILITY of the Greeks *seem* to have been much greater than ours."

2. "Even as the ROEBUCK and the HART are eaten."

Phrase Subjects. . . 3. "Chewing tobacco and smoking cigars disqualify a young man for mental improvement."—*Cutcheon*.

4. "To spin, to weave, to knit, and to sew, were once a girl's employments ;

5. But now to dress and catch a beau, are all she calls enjoyments."—*Lynn News*.

Sentence Subjects. . 6. "Read of this burgess—on the stone appear,
How worthy he ! how virtuous ! and how dear !" —
Crabbe.

EXCEPTION 1.—Two or more Singular Subjects so intimately associated in thought as to constitute a logical unity, may have a Verb in the Singular Number.

EXAMPLES.—1. "The *head* and *front* of my offending hath this extent."—*Shakspeare*.

2. "There is a peculiar *force* and *beauty* in this figure." —*Kames*.

EXCEPTION 2.—Two or more Singular Subjects preceded by the Adjectives *each*, *every*, or *no*, require the Verb to be in the Singular Number.

EXAMPLES.—1. "Every boy and every girl was eager for the recitation."

2. "Each day and each hour is fraught with consequences too momentous for human contemplation."

3. "No fortune and no condition in life makes the guilty mind happy."

EXCEPTION 3.—Two or more Singular Subjects connected by *and*—one taken affirmatively and the other negatively—require the Verb to be in the Singular Number.

EXAMPLES.—1. "My poverty, but not my will, consents."—*Shakspeare*.

2. "His moral integrity, and not his wealth, makes him respected."

EXCEPTION 4.—Two or more Singular Subjects, indicating the same person or thing, require the Verb to be in the Singular Number.

EXAMPLE.—"The saint, the father, and the husband prays."

Let Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.

1. "Two and two is four, and five is nine."

2. "The flax and the barley was smitten."
3. "The Mood and Tense is signified by the Verb."
4. "Every word and every member have their due weight and force."
5. "Each day and each hour bring their portion of duty."
6. "No law, no restraint, no regulation are required to keep him in bounds."
7. "Prudence, and not pomp, are the basis of his fame."
8. "Not fear, but fatigue, have overcome him."
9. "The President, not the Cabinet, are responsible for the measure."

NOTE VI.—A Collective Noun, indicating Plurality, requires its Verb to be in the Plural Number.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "The PEOPLE *are* foolish, they have not known me."
 2. "For the people speak, but do not write."

OBS. 1.—Collective Nouns, which always require a Plural Verb, are the following :

Gentry—mankind—nobility—people—peasantry.

OBS. 2.—Those which may have Verbs in the Singular or Plural, according to the sense, are the following :

Aristocracy—army—auditory—committee—congress—church—family—meeting—public—school—remnant—senate.

PERSON.

NOTE VII.—Two or more Subjects, taken separately and differing in Person, should have separate Verbs, when the Verb is varied to denote the Person of its Subject.

EXAMPLE.—*You ARE* in error, or *I AM*.

OBS.—But when the Verb is not varied to denote the Person, it need not be repeated.

- EXAMPLES.—1. *You* or *I MUST GO*.
 2. The *doctors* or *you ARE* in error.

NOTE VIII.—When the Subject of a Verb differs in Person or Number (or both) from a Noun or Pronoun in Predicate, the Verb should agree with its Subject rather than with the word in Predicate.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "Thou *art* the man."
 2. CLOUDS *are* vapor.
 3. A HORSE *is* an animal.

Obs. 1.—The young Pupil often finds it difficult to decide which of the two Substantives is the Subject and which the Noun in Predicate. The following *test* will decide this point :

When one term is *generic* and the other *specific*, the former belongs in Predicate—the latter is the Subject. Thus, in Example 3, “animal” is a generic term—“horse” is specific. We can not say, *an animal is a horse*, for not every animal is a horse ; but every horse is an animal. Hence, “horse” is the Subject, and “animal” is in Predicate. [See Independent Case, p. 85, Obs. 5.]

MODE AND TENSE.

NOTE IX.—That Mode and Tense of a Verb should be used which will most clearly convey the sense intended.

Obs. 1.—A Verb used to denote a conditional fact or a contingency should have the Subjunctive or the Potential form.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “WERE *I Alexander*, I would accept the terms.”
 2. “So would I WERE *I Parmenio*.”
 3. “If we *would* improve, we must study.”

Obs. 2.—But if the condition is assumed as unquestionable, the Verb should be in the Indicative Mode.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “If thou *hadst* known.”
 2. If John *has offended* you, he will make due apology.

NOTE X.—That form of the Verb should be used which will most clearly express the time intended.

Obs. 1.—In constructing Complex Sentences, the Tense of the Principal Sentence does not necessarily control the Tense of the Verb in the Auxiliary Sentence.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “I *said* in my haste, all men *are* liars.”
 2. “He *has been* so long *idle*, that he *knows* not how to work.”
 3. “Copernicus first *demonstrated* that the earth *revolves* upon its axis.”
 4. “Those that *seek* me early *shall find* me.”
 5. “‘And when we *are parted*, and when thou *art dead*, O, where *shall* we *lay* thee?’ his followers said.”

Obs. 2.—A proposition which is always true, or which includes the

past, the present, and the future, should be expressed in the Present Tense.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “The lecturer demonstrated that the earth is round.”
 2. “Did he say that the moon revolves from east to west?”

OBS. 3.—The variations for the Potential Mode are rather variations of *form* than to indicate distinctions of *time*—this Mode being generally indifferent as to time.


EXAMPLE.—“O, *would* the scandal vanish with my life,
 Then happy *were* to me ensuing death!”

OBS. 4.—The Infinitive Present generally indicates indefinite time—the Finite Verb on which it depends commonly determines its Tense.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “I *went* TO SEE him.”—Present in form, but Past in sense.
 2. “I *shall go* TO SEE him.”—Present in form, but Future in sense.

OBS. 5.—But generally, to indicate past time, the Prior Present Infinitive is used, *except when the Infinitive follows Verbs denoting purpose, expectation, wish, etc.*

- EXAMPLES.—1. We *ought* TO HAVE GONE.
 2. I *purposed* TO WRITE many days ago.
 3. I *expected* TO MEET him yesterday.

 Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.

1. “I wish I *was* a gipsy.”
2. “If I *was* a teacher, I *should* give shorter lessons.”
3. “Take care lest the boat leaves before you shall get up.”
4. “We have been expecting to see Robert all last year.”
5. “The preacher declared that beneficence was not benevolence.”

FORM OF THE VERB.

† NOTE XI.—That form of a Verb should be used which will correctly and fully express the fact intended.

- Common Errors.—1. “There let him *lay*.”—Byron.
 2. “To you I *fly* for refuge.”—Murray.
 Corrected.—There let him *lie*.—To you I *flee* for refuge.

 Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.

1. "Respectable farmers never lay down in the field."
2. "I have no objection to your setting down occasionally."
3. "While I was talking, Sarah raised up to leave the hall."
4. "I expect you was out late last night."
5. "William has been falling trees in the maple grove."

VOICE.

NOTE XII.—The form of the *Active Voice* is properly used when the agent of the action expressed is made the Subject of the Sentence.

- EXAMPLES.—1. *Columbus* discovered America.
2. *Cæsar* invaded Gaul.

OBS. 1.—The Passive form is used when the Object of the Act is made the Subject of the Sentence.

- EXAMPLES.—1. America was discovered.
2. Gaul was invaded.

OBS. 2.—The Agent of the Action is made the Object of an Adjunct Phrase, when the Verb takes the Passive form.

- EXAMPLES.—*Active Voice*.—1. William HAS SOLVED the *problem*.
2. Mary GAVE me a *rose*.

- Passive Voice*.—1. The *problem* HAS BEEN SOLVED by William.
2. A *rose* WAS GIVEN [to] me by Mary.

OBS. 3.—Action is *sometimes* improperly predicated of a Passive Subject.

EXAMPLES.


You *are mistaken*.

for You *mistake*.

The *house is building*.

for The *house is being built*.

which means . . . The *house is be[com]ing built*, *i. e.*, people are at work upon it; but the house does not act.

 Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.

1. "The boy has been found fault with too much."
2. "The old man thought he was not looked up to enough."

3. "Wheat is now selling for a dollar a bushel."
4. "My predictions are now fulfilling."
5. "The timbers are now hewing for a new bridge."
6. "Here certain chemical mysteries were carrying on by the engineers."
7. "My coat is now making by the tailor."

TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE.

NOTE XIII.—A Verb which is necessarily Transitive requires an Object in construction, expressed or implied.

OBS.—The appropriate Object of a Sentence should not be made the Object of a Phrase.

EXAMPLE.—"Transitive Verbs do not ADMIT of a *Preposition* after them."—*Bullion's Grammar*, p. 91, edition of 1847.

CORRECTED.—Transitive Verbs do not admit Prepositions after them [to complete the Predicate].

NOTE XIV.—A Verb necessarily Intransitive should not have an Object, *except by poetic license or for other rhetorical purposes*.

EXAMPLE.—"I sit *me* down, a pensive hour to spend."

EXCEPTION 1.—But a small number of Verbs are used Transitive or Intransitively. [See p. 107, Obs. 1.]

EXCEPTION 2.—Some Intransitive Verbs may have Objects of their own signification.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "I dreamed a *dream* that was not all a dream."
 2. "I have fought a good fight."

OBS. 1.—Some Verbs, commonly used Intransitively, become Transitive by virtue of a Prepositional Prefix.

- EXAMPLES.—1. John *goes* to school. "goes" is Intransitive.
 2. John *undergoes* punishment. "undergoes" is Transitive.
 3. The tower *looks* well. "looks" is Intransitive.
 4. The tower *overlooks* the city. "overlooks" is Transitive.

OBS 2.—In such examples of Compound Verbs in Predicate, it is generally—not always—the *Preposition in Composition* that makes the Verb Transitive.

OBS. 3.—Verbs made Transitive by this use of Prefixes, can not elegantly be used in the Passive Voice.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “John undergoes punishment.”—We may not say punishment is undergone by John.
 2. “The tower overlooks the city.”—Nor, the city is overlooked by the tower.

OBS. 4.—Prepositions *not in composition*, used with Intransitive Verbs to introduce Adjunct Phrases, are construed with the Predicate when the Verb becomes Passive.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “The children laughed at him.”—He *was laughed at* by the children.
 2. “We often thought of our friends at home.”—Our friends at home *were often thought of*.

REM.—Such expressions are not often elegant, and should be avoided when the same thought can be otherwise expressed. Thus,

He *was derided* by the children.
 Our friends at home were often remembered.

NOTE XV.—A Verb should not be used for its Participle in Predicate.

EXAMPLE.—James ought not to have *went*.

CORRECTED.—James ought not to have *gone*.

NOTE XVI.—A Participle should not take the place of its Verb.

EXAMPLE.—“The work is imperfect; you *done* it too hastily.”

CORRECTED.—The work is imperfect; you *did* it too hastily.

OBS.—Parts of the Predicate of a Sentence may be omitted by ellipsis.

1. The leading Word.

“If [] heard aright,

It is the knell of my departed hours.”

2. The second Word.

“They may [] and should return to allegiance.”

3. The whole Predicate.

“While [] there we visited the Asylum.”

“To whom, thus Eve [].”—*Milton*.

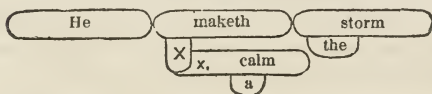
Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.

1. "Julia is always chose first."
2. "Ainsworth has spoke twice and has wrote once."
3. "The best apple was gave to Anna."
4. "You ought not to have broke that chair."
5. "I seen you when you done it."
6. "I had rather have did it myself."

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

"He maketh the storm a calm."



ANALYSIS.

MODIFIED ELEMENTS.	{	The <i>Subject</i> [not modified]. "He."	{	"maketh [to become]
		The <i>Modified Predicate</i> ...		"a calm."
		The <i>Modified Object</i>		"the storm."
PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	{	The <i>Subject</i>	{	"He."
		The <i>Predicate</i>		"maketh."
		The <i>Object</i>		"storm."
ADJUNCT ELEMENTS..	{	Of the <i>Subject</i>	{	_____
		Of the <i>Predicate</i>		[to become] "a calm."
		Of the <i>Object</i>		"the."

PARSED BY THE CHART.

He.....Is an Element in the Sentence—Principal Element—Subject—Word—Pronoun—Personal—Masculine—Third Person—Singular Number—Nominative Case.

Maketh.....Is an Element in the Sentence—Principal Element—Predicate—Verb—Indicative Mode—Present Tense—Agreeing with its Subject "He" in the Third Person—Singular Number.

The.....Is an Adjunct Element—Word—Adjective—Specifying—Pure—and limits "storm."

Storm.....Is an Element in the Sentence—Principal Element—Object—Word—Noun—Common—Third Person—Singular Number—Objective Case.

[To become] } Is an Adjunct Element—Phrase—Adverbial—Infinitive
a calm... } —and modifies "maketh."

- A.....Is an Element in the Phrase—Adjunct—Word—Adjective—Specifying—Pure—and limits “calm.”
- Calm.....Is an Element in the Phrase—Subsequent—Word—Noun—Common—Third Person—Singular Number—“in Predicate” with *become* understood.

REM.—The above is the correct grammatical construction of the Sentence, and it is correctly parsed. But without the Adjunct Phrase “to become a calm,” the word “maketh” could not properly have “storm” as its Object. “Storm” is the Object of the *modified* Predicate “maketh [causing to become] a calm.”

GRAMMATIC FALLACIES.

REM.—Let the Pupil correct the errors in the following Sentences, and give the authority for every criticism, by a proper reference to RULE 2, or to NOTES and OBSERVATIONS under the RULE.

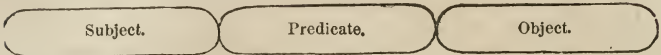
1. “The rapidity of his movements *were* beyond example.”—*Wells*.
2. “The mechanism of clocks and watches were totally unknown.”
3. “The Past Tense of these Verbs are very indefinite with respect to time.”—*Bullion's Grammar*, p. 31. 1840.
4. “Everybody are very kind to her.”—*Byron*.
5. “To study mathematics, require maturity of mind.”
6. “That they were foreigners, were apparent in their dress.”
7. “Coleridge the poet and philosopher have many admirers.”
8. “No monstrous height, or length, or breadth appear.”—*Pope*.
9. “Common sense, as well as piety, tell us these are proper.”
10. “Wisdom or folly govern us.”—*Fisk's Grammar*.
11. “Nor want nor cold his course delay.”—*Johnson*.
12. “Hence naturally arise indifference or aversion between the parties.”—*Brown's Estimates*.
13. “Wisdom, and not wealth, procure esteem.”—*Ib.*
14. “No company likes to confess that they are ignorant.”
15. “The people rejoices in that which should cause sorrow.”
16. “Therein consists the force and use and nature of language.”
17. “From him proceeds power, sanctification, truth, grace, and every other blessing we can conceive.”—*Calvin*.
18. “How is the Gender and Number of the Relative known?”
19. “Hill and dale doth boast thy blessing.”—*Milton*.
20. “The Syntax and Etymology of the language is thus spread before the learner.”—*Bullion's Grammar*.
21. “In France the peasantry goes barefoot, and the middle sort makes use of wooden shoes.”—*Harvey*.

22. "While all our youth prefers her to the rest."—*Waller*.
23. "A great majority of our authors is defective in manner."—*J. Brown*.
24. "Neither the intellect nor the heart are capable of being driven."
25. "Nor he nor I are capable of harboring a thought against your peace."—*Walpole*.
26. "Neither riches nor fame render a man happy."—*Day's Grammar*.
27. "I or thou art the person who must undertake the business."—*J. Murray*.
28. "The quarrels of lovers is a renewal of love."
29. "Two or more sentences united together is called a compound sentence."—*Day's Grammar*.
30. "If I was a Greek, I should resist Turkish despotism."
31. "I can not say that I admire this construction, though it be much used."—*Priestly's Grammar*, p. 172.
32. "It was observed in Chap. 3, that the disjunctive *or* had a double use."—*Churchill's Grammar*.
33. "I observed that love constituted the whole character of God."
34. "A stranger to the poem would not easily discover that this was verse."—*Murray*.
35. "Had I commanded you to have done this, you would thought hard of it."—*J. Brown*.
36. "I found him better than I expected to have found him."
37. "There are several faults which I intended to have enumerated."
38. "An effort is making to abolish the law."
39. "The Spartan admiral was sailed to the Hellespont."—*Goldsmith*.
40. "So soon as he was landed, the multitude thronged about him."
41. "Which they neither have nor can do."—*Barclay*.
42. "For you have but mistook me all the while."—*Shakespeare*.
43. "Who would not have let them appeared."—*Steele*.
44. "You were chose probationer."—*Spectator*.
45. "Had I known the character of the lecture, I would not have went."
46. "They don't ought to do it."—*Watkins*.
47. "Had I ought to place '*wise*' in Predicate with '*makes?*'"—*Pupil*.
48. "Whom they had *sat* at defiance"—*Bolingbroke*.
49. "Whereunto the righteous *fly* and are safe."—*Barclay*.
50. "She *sets* as a prototype, for exact imitation."—*Rash*.

REM.—After correcting the above examples, the Pupil should analyze and parse them—using the MODEL given on p. 205, or those on pp. 183-4.

III. *The Object of a Sentence.*

RULE 3.—The Object of an action or relation must be in the Objective Case.



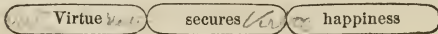
- EXAMPLES.—1. "Virtue secures *happiness*."
 2. "*Him* from my childhood I have known."
 3. "*Them* that honor *me*, I will honor."

Obs. 1.—The Object of a Sentence may be—

1. A *Noun*. "Now twilight lets her *curtain* down,
2. A *Pronoun*. And pins *it* with a star."
3. A *Phrase*. "I doubted *his having been a soldier*."
4. A *Sentence*. "But Brutus says, *he was ambitious*."

(1.) OBJECT WORD.

"Virtue secures *happiness*."



FORM OF THE OBJECT.

Obs. 2.—The *forms* of Nouns do not distinguish the Objective Case from the Nominative or Subjective.

NOTE I.—Pronouns that are varied in form to denote the Case, should have their appropriate forms for the *Objective*.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "*Them* that honor *me*, I will honor."
 2. "And must I leave *thee*, Paradise?"

 Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.

1. "They will not go without she and I."
2. "Who did Gertrude marry?"
3. "Vain pomp and glory of the world, I hate ye."
4. "I can not tell who I saw there."
5. "I took it to be he who we had visited at Homer."

REM.—The Personal Pronouns and the Relative and the Interrogative *who* are the only Substantive Words that distinguish the cases by their *forms*. [See Declension of Pronouns, page 89.] Hence,

Obs. 3.—In constructing Sentences, special attention is required in giving to the Object of a Sentence its appropriate *position*.

POSITION OF THE OBJECT.

NOTE II.—In *position*, the Object of a Sentence commonly follows the Predicate.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “Virtue SECURES *happiness*.”
2. “The king of shadows LOVES a shining *mark*.”

EXCEPTION 1.—By the poets, and for rhetorical effect, the Object is often placed before the Predicate.

- EXAMPLES.—1.—“*Him*, from my childhood, I HAVE KNOWN.”
2.—“New ills that latter *stage* AWAIT.”

EXCEPTION 2.—A *Relative Pronoun*, being the Object of a Sentence, is placed before its Predicate.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “Mount the horse *which* I HAVE CHOSEN for you.”
2. “We serve a Monarch *whom* we LOVE—
A God *whom* we ADORE.”

TWO OR MORE OBJECTS.

Obs. 4.—A Sentence may have two or more Objects when they are connected in construction by Conjunctions, expressed or implied.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “GOD CREATED the *heaven* and the *earth*.”
2. “Now twilight LETS her *curtain* down,
And PINS *it* with a star.”

REM.—These are Compound Sentences. In Sentence 1, “*heaven*” and “*earth*” are Objects of the same Verb, “*created*.” In Sentence 2, “*curtain*” is the Object of “*lets*,” and “*it*” is the Object of “*pins*.”

Obs. 5.—The Objects of a Compound Sentence sometimes consist of different Words, indicating the same being or thing.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “By this dispensation, we HAVE LOST a *neighbor*, a *friend*, a *brother*.”
2. “Thus she addressed the *Father* of gods, and *King* of men.”

Obs. 6.—But one Word used to limit the signification of another, can not be in the same construction; and hence, the two Words are not Objects of the same Verb, unless they are compounded and parsed as one Element.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “We visited NAPLES, the *home* of our childhood.”
 2. Have you seen COLERIDGE, the *philosopher* and *poet*?

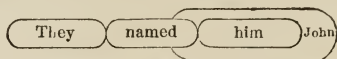
REM.—“*Home*” is a Noun, used to describe “Naples,” not as an Adjective, but as an equivalent name of the same place.

“*Philosopher*” and “*poet*” are Substantive appellations of the man, “Coleridge”

[See “Logical Adjuncts” and “Independent Case,” p. 85, Obs. 2, 3.]

OBS. 7.—The Verbs *appoint*, *call*, *choose*, *constitute*, *create*, *dub*, *elect*, *make*, *name*, and *proclaim*, sometimes have two Objects—one direct, and the other indirect.

- EXAMPLES.—1. They named *him* JOHN.



2. The State Society elected *North* PRESIDENT,
 3. And chose *Hoose* SECRETARY.

REM.—In Example 1, “*him*” is the *direct* Object—“*John*” the *remote* Object; and is, logically considered, a part of the Predicate—a *title* acquired by the action expressed by the Verb. The Verbs above given do not, in such examples, express the full Predicate, nor have we Verbs that *can*, unless, perhaps in the following example :

“They dubbed *him* KNIGHT.”

Equivalent.—“They KNIGHTED *him*.”

OBS. 8.—A Verb which, in the Active Voice, is followed by a direct and a remote Object, retains the remote Object as a part of the Passive Predicate.

- EXAMPLES.—1. He *is named John*.
 2. North *was elected President*.

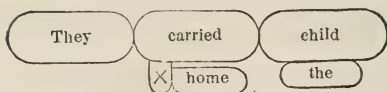
REM.—This construction is analogous to that of a Substantive in Predicate with a Neuter Verb.

Thou *art Peter*—He *is John*.

Thou art—who?—*Peter*. He *is named John*. The word “*Peter*” completes the Predicate; the words “*named John*” complete the Predicate.

OBS. 9.—The construction noticed in Obs. 7 should be carefully distinguished from that in which a Verb is followed by two Objects—one of the Verb and the other of a Preposition suppressed.

EXAMPLE.—“They *carried the child home*.”



REM.—“Child” is the name of a young being, and, in this connection, is the proper object of “carried.” But “home” is a name applied to a habitation, a building, and “they” probably did not “carry” that. They carried the child *to* some place—and that place was its *home*.

1. “He *told* ME his *history*.”—He *related* to ME his *history*.
2. “I *asked* him his *OPINION*.”
3. “Our dear Joachim has asked me for my opinion.”—*Michelot’s Luther*.
4. “He *gave* ME a book.”—He *gave* a book to me.

REM.—In parsing examples like the above, the ellipsis should be supplied. Thus, “to his home” is an Adjunct of “carried.” Hence, an Adverbial Phrase.

“Home,” as a *Representative* of the Phrase, is an Adverb.

“Home,” as an Element in the Phrase, is a Noun—Object of *to* understood. Hence, in the Objective Case. [See p. 172.]

OBS. 10.—The Verbs *make*, *esteem*, *regard*, *consider*, *elect*, *bid*, *dare*, *feel*, *hear*, *see*, and some others, are often followed by an Infinitive Phrase, having its Preposition (and sometimes the Verb) understood.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “Lorenzo, these are thoughts that *make** *man* MAN.”
 These are thoughts that *make* *man* [TO BE] MAN.
2. “*Teach* them OBEEDIENCE to the laws.”
Teach them [TO YIELD] OBEEDIENCE to the laws.

REM.—In examples like these, the second Noun or Pronoun is the Object of the Verb understood or used in Predicate with it. Thus, “man” is used in Predicate with “to be,” or “to become,” understood, and “obedience” is the Object of “yield.”

- EXAMPLES.—1. “Intemperance makes a man [to become] a fool.”
2. “He maketh the storm [] a calm.” [See Diagram, p. 205.]

NOTE III.—Intransitive Verbs have no Object.

EXAMPLES.—I sit.—Thou art.—He sleeps.

* The word *make* is generally thus used, when it signifies “to cause to be,” “to cause to become.”

OBS. 1.—But some Verbs, commonly used Intransitively, sometimes have Objects of their own signification.

EXAMPLES.—1. I have fought a good *fight*.—2. We ran a *race*.
3. He sleeps the sleep of death

NOTE IV.—A few Verbs may be used Transitivity or Intransitively.

EXAMPLES.—1. The sun *set* in the west.
2. He *set* the inkstand on the table
3. Cool *blows* the wind.
4. The wind *blows* the dust.

POSITION OF THE OBJECT.

OBS. 1.—When a Transitive Verb is followed by two Objects—one, the Object of the Verb, and the other the Object of a Preposition suppressed, the Object of the Preposition is placed between the Verb and its Object.

EXAMPLES.—1. “Mary gave *me* a ROSE.”
2. “Bring *home* my BOOKS.”

REM.—“*Me*” is an abridged Adjunct of “*gave*” [see Adverbs by Representation, p. 23], and is placed next its Verb according to the Rule for the Position of Adverbs. [See p. 259.]

EXCEPTION.—When the indirect Object suggests the important thought, or when it is the emphatic word in the Sentence, it is placed *after* the direct Object.

EXAMPLE.—“They carried the CHILD *home*.”

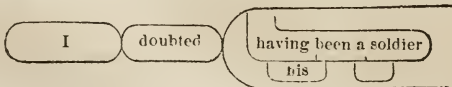
OBS. 2.—But, when the Preposition is expressed, the direct Object is placed next its Verb.

EXAMPLE.—“Mary GAVE a *rose* to me.”

OBJECT PHRASE.

NOTE V.—Transitive Verbs may have, as their Objects, *Substantive Phrases*.

EXAMPLES.—1. “I doubted *his having been a soldier*.”



I doubted—*what?* Not “*his*,” nor “*having*,” nor “*been*,” nor “*a*,” nor “*soldier*,” but the fact asserted by the whole Phrase—“*His having been a soldier*.”

2. “His being a minister, prevented *his rising to civil power*.” Prevented—*what?*

Obs. 1. Object Phrases are generally of the *Participial Form*, Prepositional and Infinitive Phrases being commonly used as Adjuncts, and Independent Phrases as Logical Adjuncts. [See p. 20, Obs. 1; see also Clark’s Analysis, p. 115.]

Obs. 2.—But Prepositional, Infinitive, and Independent Phrases may be used *technically* as Objects of Transitive Verbs.

EXAMPLES.—1. “The maniac repeated, ‘*on a bed of green sea-flowers*,’ during the interview.”

2. The damsel could not say “*to be loving*,” without embarrassment.

Obs. 3.—Infinitive Phrases following Verbs, commonly indicate *purpose* or *cause*, and serve to limit the signification or application of Verbs. Such are properly called Adverbs.

EXAMPLES.—1. Pupils are allowed *to read*.

2. Pupils appear *to read*.
3. Pupils assemble *to read*.
4. Pupils ought *to read*.
5. Pupils begin *to read*.
6. Pupils wish *to read*.

REM. 1.—In Sentences 1, 2, 3, and 4, the Phrase “*to read*” is plainly Adverbial, the Predicate Verbs being necessarily Intransitive.

In the analysis of Sentences like 5 and 6, two sentiments obtain with prominent grammarians—1, that “*to read*” is the Object of “*begin*” and “*wish*” [see Welch, p. 205, and others]; 2, that “*begin*” and “*wish*” are here Intransitive Verbs. [See Brown, p. 496, and others.] On this point, Brown is manifestly in error. Most Transitive Verbs may have as their Objects Infinitive Phrases. [See Examples 5 and 6.]

Obs. 4.—The Transitive Verbs having Objects expressed, are often limited by Infinitive Phrases.

EXAMPLES.—1. The teacher REQUESTED William *to recite*.

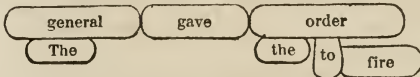
2. I BELIEVE the milkman *to be honest*.

REM. 2.—“*To recite*” is a Phrase, Adjunct of “*requested*,” it *limits* the request. “*William*” is the Object of the modified Predicate “*requested*” to recite.

“*To be honest*” is a Phrase Adjunct of “believe;” milkman is the Object of the modified Predicate “believe to be honest.”

OBS. 5.—This construction should be carefully distinguished from that in which the Infinitive Phrase is Adjunct of the Object.

EXAMPLES.—1. The general gave the order *to fire*.



2. The subordinate manifested a DISPOSITION *to dictate*.

3. Idle pupils manifest little anxiety to improve.

4. “We have our various duties to perform.”

REM. 3.—“*To fire*” limits “order;” hence, an Adjective.

“*To dictate*” limits “disposition;” hence, an Adjective.

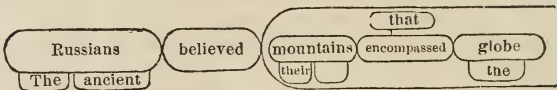
Let the Pupil place Sentences 2 and 3 in the given Diagram; and vary the Diagram for 4.

OBJECT SENTENCE.

NOTE VI.—Many Transitive Verbs have as their Objects *Substantive Auxiliary Sentences*.

EXAMPLES.—1. “But Brutus says *he was ambitious*.”

2. “The ancient Russians believed *that their northern mountains encompassed the globe*.”



3. “Can you tell *where my Highland laddie’s gone*?”

4. “He hastily demanded *why I came*.”

5. “The village all declared *how much he knew*.”

6. “Did you but know *to whom I gave the ring*.”

REM. 1.—The Pupil will notice that Sentences used as *Indirect Objects*, are introduced by a Word or a Phrase *which constitutes, logically, the essential part of the Object*. Thus in sentence 2, “that” stands for the whole Proposition.

“Their northern mountains encompassed the globe.”

“The ancient Russians believed *that*.”

“My Highland laddie has gone”—can you tell *where*?

“I gave the ring”—did you but know *to whom*.

REM. 2.—Still we are to regard the *entire Auxiliary Sentence* as the Grammatical Object of the Principal Predicate.

Obs. 2.—This construction is to be carefully distinguished from Complex Sentences, in which the Object Sentences are introduced by the Double Relative *what*.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "But here I stand and tell *what I do know*."
 2. "You have done what you should be sorry for."

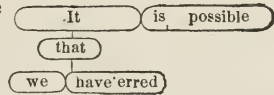
REM. 3.—Here, "what I do know" is the *modified* Object of "tell."
 [See Diagram, p. 43.]

Obs. 3.—By another construction, Auxiliary Sentences are placed after Predicates of Principal Sentences—not as Objects, but as Adjuncts of purpose, cause, etc.

- EXAMPLES.—1. The pupil studies *that he may improve*.
 2. "And I am glad *that he has lived thus long* ;
 3. And [] glad *that he has gone to his reward*."

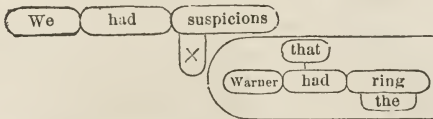
Obs. 4.—Another construction makes the Auxiliary Sentence a Logical Adjunct of a Substantive.

EXAMPLES.—"It is possible *that we have erred*."



[See "Independent Case," and "Independent Sentence," in place.]

"We had strong suspicions *that Warner had the ring*."



REM.—*What* were our suspicions?

Ans. *That Warner had the ring*.

Hence, "that Warner had the ring," is a logical Adjunct of "suspicions," and in the Diagram is placed under, but not attached to, "suspicions."

Obs. 5.—Sometimes a Principal Sentence is *thrown in* between the parts of an Objective Sentence.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "Whose charms, *me thought*, could never fade."
 2. "This explanation, *I doubt not*, will satisfy him."
 3. "But confidence, *he added*, is a plant of slow growth."

THE OBJECTS OF PHRASES.

REM.—Action is expressed by *Verbs* and by *Participles*. Relation is expressed by *Prepositions*. Hence,

Obs. 1.—The Object of a Verb or of a Participle, is the Object of an *Action*, and must be in the Objective Case.

EXAMPLES.

Infinitive Verb.—"I came to BURY *Cæsar*, not to PRAISE *him*."

Participle.—"He could not avoid GIVING *offense*."

Obs. 2.—The Object of a Preposition is the Object of a *Relation*, indicated by the Preposition, and should be in the Objective Case.

EXAMPLES.—1. "FOR *me* your tributary stores *combine*."

2. "The boy stood ON the burning *deck*,
Whence all BUT *him* had fled."

3. "THAN *whom*, Satan EXCEPT, none higher sat."

NOTE I.—Pronouns in the Objective Case should have their appropriate forms.

EXAMPLES.—1. "Did you but know to *whom* I gave the *ring*."

2. "I call to *thee* with all my *voice*."

EXCEPTION 1.—The Possessive form of Nouns and Pronouns is rarely used in the Objective Case.

EXAMPLE.—John is a friend of *mine*. [See p. 90.]

EXCEPTION 2.—Adjunct Sentences, introduced by the Conjunctions *as*, *before*, *than*, *till*, etc., are often contracted into Adjunct Phrases—the Subjects of the Sentences becoming the Objects of Phrases, often without a corresponding change of form. [See page 172.]

Obs.—The Objects of Phrases and Sentences may be *Words*, *Phrases*, or *Sentences*.

OBJECTS OF SENTENCES.

Let the following Sentences be analyzed by the CHART, and parsed :

Word Objects.—1. "There thou shalt FIND my *cousin Beatrice*."—*Shaks*.

2. "His daring foe securely *him* DEFIED."—*Milton*.

3. "The broom its yellow *leaf* HATH SHED."—*Langhorn*.

4. "Did I REQUEST *thee*. Maker, from *my* clay,
To mold *me* man?"—*Milton*.

- Phrase Objects.*—5. “We may AVOID *talking nonsense* on these subjects.”
 6. “I DOUBTED *their having it.*”
Sentence Objects.—7. “They SAY, ‘*This shall be,*’ and it is.”
 8. “Athens FOUND *that neither art nor science could avail against depravity of morals.*”

II. OBJECTS OF PHRASES—INFINITIVE.

- Word Objects.*—9. “How I love to SEE *thee, Golden, evening sun!*”
 10. “I come to BURY *Cæsar, not to praise him.*”
Phrase Objects.—11. “He endeavored to PREVENT *our being tossed about by every wind of doctrine.*”
 12. “It is difficult to DOUBT *his having seen military service.*”
Sentence Objects.—13. “This goes to PROVE *what strange creatures we are.*”
 14. “The Governor commands me to SAY, *that he has no further business with the Senate.*”

PARTICIPIAL.

- Word Objects.*—15. “SCALING *yonder peak, I saw an eagle.*”
 16. “FINDING *fault, never does any good.*”
Phrase Objects.—17. “By OPPOSING *your going to college, your father abridged your usefulness.*”
Sentence Objects.—18. “The ceremonies concluded by the doctor’s SAYING, ‘*Gentlemen, we will resume our studies at seven to-morrow.*’”

PREPOSITIONAL.


- Word Objects.*—19. “There came to the *beach* a poor exile OF *Erin.*”
 20. “You are a much greater loser BY *his death.*”
 21. “The nation crowned with laurels veterans, scarred in service.”
 22. “He suffers for *them* that have no hope.”
Maturin’s Sermons.
Phrase Objects.—23. “In the matter OF *making and receiving presents, much discretion is required.*”
 24. “I had no knowledge OF *there being any connection between them.*”—*Stone.*
 25. “To follow foolish precedents and wink
 With both-our eyes, is easier THAN *to think.*”
Sentence Objects.—26. “And all the air a solemn stillness holds—
 SAVE *where the beetle wheels his droning flight.*”

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

PAGE.

208. Repeat RULE III.—Make examples to illustrate it.
The Object of a Sentence may consist of what? See Obs. 1.
What Object Words are distinguished by their *forms*? . . . See Obs. 2.
What is the usual *Position* of the Object?
209. Mention the Exceptions, and give Examples.
When may two or more words be Objects of the same Verb?
Make Sentences to illustrate Obs. 4 and 5.
When may they not both be Objects of a preceding Verb?
Make Sentences to illustrate Obs. 6.
What Verbs may have *direct* and *indirect* Objects?
210. Make Sentences to illustrate Obs. 7.
What Passive Verbs may have Objects?
Make Sentences to illustrate Obs. 8.
Make Sentences to illustrate Obs. 9.
211. Make Sentences to illustrate Obs. 10.
212. What Verbs have no Objects? See Note IV.
Make Sentences to illustrate Obs. 1.
What Verbs may be used Transitivity or Intransitivity?
Two Objects, one of a Verb and the other of a Preposition suppressed, have what *relative positions*?
Make Sentences to illustrate Obs. 2.
What position have the Objects when the Preposition is expressed?
Make Sentences to illustrate Obs. 3.
213. What Phrases may be Objects of Sentences?
Make Sentences to illustrate Obs. 1.
215. Make a Sentence having a Sentence Object.

GRAMMATIC FALLACIES.

 Let the Pupil correct the following Sentences, giving the proper authority for each correction :

1. "Let none touch it but they who are clean."—*Sale's Koran.*
2. "None but *thou*, O mighty prince, canst avert the blow."
3. "None but *thou* can aid us."
4. "No mortal man, save he, had e'er survived to say he saw."—*Scott.*
5. "We are alone ; here's none but thee and I."—*Shakspeare.*
6. "Good Margaret, run *thee* into the parlor."—*Shakspeare.*
7. "He loves he knows not *who*."—*Addison.*

PRONOUNS.

RULE 4.—A Pronoun must agree with its Antecedent in Person and Number.

NOTE I.—A Pronoun should have a Singular form when it represents one Singular Antecedent.

EXAMPLE.—*Henry* was quite well when I last saw *him*.

NOTE II.—A Pronoun should have a Singular form when it represents two or more Singular Antecedents taken separately.

EXAMPLE.—“The *oil* of peppermint, or any other volatile *oil*, dropped on paper, will soon evaporate; no trace of *it* will be left.”

NOTE III.—A Pronoun should have a Singular form when it represents a Collective Noun indicating Unity.

EXAMPLE.—I found the school more orderly than *it* had been under my administration.

 Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.

1. Let any pupil put this in Diagram if they can.
2. If Clara or Anna will do it, they shall be complimented.
3. “The congregation dispersed less orderly than it had assembled.”
4. Each pupil may select a sentence for themselves
5. “Every true believer has the spirit of God in them.”—*Barclay*.

NOTE IV.—A Pronoun should have a Plural form when it has one Antecedent indicating Plurality.

EXAMPLE.—Few *men* are as wise as *they* might be.

NOTE V.—A Pronoun should have a Plural form when it has two or more Antecedents taken collectively.

EXAMPLE.—Mary and Anna always accomplish what *they* undertake.

NOTE VI.—A Pronoun should have a Plural form when its Antecedent is a Collective Noun indicating Plurality.

EXAMPLE.—The committee were unanimous in every measure which *they* discussed.

 Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.

1. "No people can be free unless it is virtuous."
2. "I sold my horse and buggy for less than it cost."
3. "A people may be ignorant and happy; but it can never be ignorant and prosperous"
4. "Do not make so many *erasures* in your composition; *it* makes it look badly."—*Preceptress*.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

NOTE VII.—The *form* of a Personal Pronoun should indicate its Person and Number.

OBS. 1.—The Pronouns *I* and *we* denote the person or persons speaking or writing—"I," Singular—"we," Plural. But,

OBS. 2.—"We" is used in the Singular by Editors and Emperors.

EXAMPLES.—"We, Nicholas I., Emperor of all the Russias"

"We shall present *ourself* as candidate at the next election."

OBS. 3.—*Thou* is used in Solemn Style to denote a person addressed.

EXAMPLE.—"*Thou* didst weave this verdant roof."

OBS. 4.—*You* was formerly limited to the Second Person Plural, but is now used in the Second Person Singular and Plural. Its Verb is commonly in the Plural form.

EXAMPLES.—1. "You *are come* too late."

2. You *have accomplished* your object.

OBS. 5.—But it has sometimes a Singular form.

EXAMPLES.—1. "When you *was* here comforting me."—*Pope*.

2. "Why *was* you glad?"—*Boswell's Life of Johnson*.

OBS. 6.—The Pronoun "*it*" often has an Indefinite or undetermined Antecedent; and may then represent any Gender, Person, or Number.

EXAMPLES.—1. "*It* snows."—2. "*It* was my *father*."

3. "*It* was the *students*."

4. "A pleasant thing *it* is, *to behold the sun*."

NOTE VIII.—Pronouns of different Persons, used in the same connection, should have their appropriate position.

OBS. 1.—The Second Person is placed first—the Third next, and the First last.

EXAMPLE.—*You and James and I* have been invited.

OBS. 2.—But when a fault is confessed, this order is sometimes reversed.

EXAMPLE.—“*I and my people* have sinned.”

OBS. 3.—This position obtains also when we acknowledge a defeat or a common calamity.

EXAMPLE.—“Then *I and you and all of us* fell down,
Whilst bloody Treason flourished over us.”

NOTE IX.—The Pronoun “*them*” should not be used Adjectively.

Incorrect.—Bring me *them* books.

Correct.—Bring me *those* books.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

OBS. 1.—A Relative Pronoun always performs a double office, and is used Substantively and Conjunctively.

EXAMPLE.—He *who* studies, will improve.

“Who” relates to “he,” and is the Subject of studies; hence, a Substantive.

“Who studies,” is a Sentence used to describe “he.”

“Who” introduces the Sentence; hence, it performs the office of a Conjunction.

OBS. 2.—*Who* and *whom* are applied to man, and to other intelligent beings; *which*, to things; *that*, to persons or to things.”

EXAMPLES.—1. “*He THAT* attends to his interior self, has business.”

2. “Too low *they* build, *who* build beneath the stars.”

3. “*He WHOM* sea-severed realms obey.”

4. “The *books WHICH* I had lost have been returned.”

5. ——— “where is the *patience* now

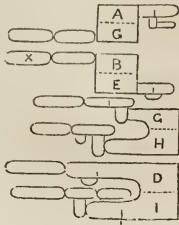
THAT you so oft have boasted to retain?”—*Lear*, iii. 6.

OBS. 3.—But the name of a person, taken as a *name merely*, or as a title, may be represented by the Relative *which*.

EXAMPLE.—*Shylock*—*WHICH* is but another name for selfishness.

OBS. 4.—When the Relative “*what*” is used substantively, it usually bears a part in the structure of two sentences at the same time. It is equivalent to “*that which*,” or “*the things which*.” The Antecedent part may be the Subject (A) or the Object (B) of a Principal Sentence, the Object (C) of a Phrase in that Sentence, or used in Predicate (D).

The Consequent or Relative part introduces an Auxiliary Sentence, which qualifies the Antecedent, and may be the Subject (E) or the Object (G) of that Sentence, the Object of a Phrase (H), or used in Predicate with a Verb (I).



1. "WHAT reason weaves, by passion is undone."—*Pope*.
2. "Deduct WHAT is but vanity."—*Idem*.
3. "Each was favored with WHAT he most delighted in."
4. "It is not WHAT I supposed it to be."

OBS 5.—*What* is sometimes a Simple Relative.

EXAMPLE.—"And *what* love can do, that dares love attempt."—*Romeo*.

OBS. 6.—*Whoever, whosoever, whatever, whatsoever, and who* (used for *whoever*), have a construction similar to *what*.

EXAMPLES.—1. "*Whatever* purifies fortifies also the heart."

2. "*Who* lives to nature rarely can be poor."

3. "*Who* lives to Fancy, never can be rich."

OBS. 7.—*What, which, whatever, and whatsoever*, are often used Adjectively.

EXAMPLES.—1. "*What* book have you?"

2. "*Whatever* object is most dear."

3. "*Whatsoever* things are honest."

4. "*Which* hope we have."

OBS. 8.—*That* is sometimes improperly used for the Relative *what*.

EXAMPLE.—"Take *that* is thine."

OBS. 9.—*What* is sometimes substituted for an Adverbial Phrase.

EXAMPLE.—"*What* [in what respect] shall it profit a man?"

OBS. 10.—*What* is sometimes used as an Exclamation.

EXAMPLE.—"*What!* Is thy servant a dog?"

OBS. 11.—The two words, *but what*—and also, *but that*—are sometimes improperly used for the Conjunction *that*.

EXAMPLES.—1. "I did not doubt *but what* you would come."

2. "I did not doubt *but that* you would come."

Corrected.—I did not doubt *that* you would come.

OBS. 12.—The Relatives *than* and *as* have Adjectives, or Adjective Pronouns, for their Antecedents.

As, when a Relative Pronoun, has for its Antecedent the word “*such*”—used Adjectively, or as an Adjective Pronoun.

Than follows *more*, or some other Adjective, in the Comparative Degree.

EXAMPLES FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

1. “Nestled at his root

Is Beauty; *such* AS blooms not in the glare
Of the broad sun.”—*Bryant*.

2. “We request *such* of you as think we overlaud the ode, to point out one word in it that would be better away.”—*Wilson's Burns*.

3. “He has *less* discretion THAN he was famed for having.”

4. “There is *more* owing her THAN is paid.”—*All's Well*, i. 3.

POSITION.

NOTE X.—The Position of Relative Pronouns should be such as most clearly to indicate their Antecedents.

OBS. 1.—When a Relative is the Subject or the Object of an Auxiliary Sentence, it should be placed next its Antecedent.

EXAMPLES.—1. “Can *all* THAT optics teach unfold
Thy form to please me so?”

2. “The *grave*, THAT never spoke before,
Hath found, at length, a tongue to chide.”

EXCEPTION.—Sometimes, for rhetorical effect, words of special importance may be placed between the Relative and its Antecedent.

EXAMPLE.—“O, *they* love least THAT let men know their love.”

OBS. 2.—When the Relative is the Object of a Prepositional Phrase, it comes between its Antecedent and the Auxiliary Sentence with which that Phrase is construed.

EXAMPLE.—“We prize *that* most FOR WHICH *we* labor most.”

REM.—“For which” modifies “labor”—“which” relates to “that.”

OBS. 3.—The Relative *that*, used as the Object of a Preposition, is placed *before* the Preposition. *Whom*, *which*, and *what*, are placed after their Prepositions.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “I have meat to eat *that* ye know not of.”
 2. “Withhold not good from them *to whom* it is due.”
 3. “The world *in which* we sojourn is not our home.”
 4. “We could not learn *for what* he came.”

OBS. 4.—The Relative—when the Subject of a Sentence, or the Object of a Phrase—can rarely be omitted without weakening the force of the expression.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “For is there aught in sleep [] can charm the wise.
 2. “The time may come [] you need not fly.”

OBS. 5.—But the suppression of the Relative is allowed when it is the Object of a Sentence, or when the position of the words is such as to prevent ambiguity or weaken the expression.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “History is all the light we have in many cases, and we receive from it a great part of the useful truths we have.”
 2. “But they that fight for freedom, undertake
 The noblest cause mankind can have at stake.”

INTERROGATIVES.

NOTE XI.—Interrogative Pronouns are construed like Personal Pronouns.

- EXAMPLES.—1. As the Subject of a Sentence—*Who* has the lesson?
 2. As the Object of a Sentence—*Whom* seek ye?
 3. As the Object of a Phrase—*For what* do we labor?

OBS. 1.—The Interrogative force of such Pronouns is commonly suppressed when they introduce Substantive Auxiliary Sentences.

- EXAMPLES.—1. We shall soon ascertain *who* has the lesson.
 2. Ye still refuse to tell *whom* ye seek.
 3. We scarcely know *for what* we labor.

OBS. 2.—But the Principal Sentence may remain interrogative.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “*Who* shall decide *which* shall have the premium?”
 2. *How* can you tell *whom* the teacher will reward?
 3. *By whom* did you learn *for whom* I voted?

OBS. 3.—The word which answers a question has a construction similar to that of the word which asks it.

- EXAMPLES.—1. *Whose* book have you? *Mary's*.
 2. *What* could I do? *Nothing*.
 3. *Where* did you see him? *In Rochester*
 4. *Whence* came they? *From Ireland*.

REM.—“*Mary's*” specifies “book”—“*in Rochester*” modifies “*did see*”—“*from Ireland*” modifies “*came*.”

OBS. 4.—The Interrogative *what*, followed by the Conjunctions *though*, *if*, and some others, commonly belongs to a Principal Sentence understood, on which the following Sentence depends for sense.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “*What if* the foot aspired to be the head?”
 What [would be the consequence] if the foot, etc.
 2. “*What though* Destruction sweep these lovely plains?”
 What [occasion have we to despair] though Destruction sweep these lovely plains?

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

RULE 5.—Adjective Pronouns are *substituted* for the Nouns *which they qualify*.

NOTE I.—When used as Subjects, *each*, *either*, *neither*, *this*, *that*, and all other Adjective Pronouns indicating *unity*, require their Verbs to be in the *Singular* Number.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “*Each* believes its own.”
 2. *Either* is sufficient.

NOTE II.—*These*, *those*, *many*, *others*, *several*, and other Adjective Pronouns indicating *plurality*, require their Verbs to be in the *Plural*.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “*These* are the things which defile.”
 2. “*Those* were halcyon days.”

NOTE III.—*Any*, *all*, *like*, *some*, *none*, *more*, and *such*, may have Verbs in the *Singular* or *Plural*, according as they indicate *unity* or *plurality*.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “None but the upright in heart are capable of being true friends.”—*Y. L. Friend.*
2. “None has arrived.”
3. “All are but parts of one stupendous whole.”
4. “What if the field be lost? All is not lost.”
5. “The like were never seen before.”
6. “Like produces like.”
7. “Objects of importance must be portrayed by objects of importance; such as have grace, by things graceful.”
8. Nestled at its root
Is Beauty; such as blooms not in the glare
Of the broad sun.”

Obs. 1.—Qualifying and some Specifying Adjectives receive the definitive “the” before them, on becoming Adjective Pronouns. They may be qualified by *Adjectives* or by *Adverbs*, according as the *thing* or the *quality* is to be limited.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “The good alone are great.”
2. “The *professedly* good are not always *really* so.”
3. “The *much* good done by him will not soon be forgotten.”

“Professedly” modifies the *quality*; hence, it is an Adverb.

“Much” limits the *things* done; hence, it is an Adjective.

Obs. 2.—In the analysis of a Sentence, *each*, *other*, *one another*, and similar distributives, are properly parsed as single words.

But, in strict construction the parts perform different offices.

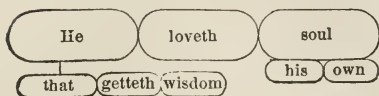
- EXAMPLES.—They assisted each other.
They assisted—each [assisted] the other.

Obs. 3.—When two things are mentioned in contrast, and severally referred to by Adjective Pronouns—*this* and *these*, refer to the *latter*—*that* and *those*, to the *former*.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “Here living tea-pots stand, *one arm* held out,
ONE bent; the handle *THIS*, and *that* the spout.”—*Pope.*
2. “Farewell, my *friends*; farewell, my *foes*;
My peace with *THESE*, my love with *those*.”—*Burns.*
3. “Some place the bliss in action; *SOME*, in ease:
Those call it pleasure; and contentment *THESE*.”

EXERCISES.

“*He that getteth wisdom, loveth his own soul.*”



A Complex Sentence.

ANALYSIS.

MODIFIED SUBJECT.....“He that getteth wisdom,”
 LOGICAL PREDICATE.....“Loveth his own soul.”

GRAMMATIC ELEMENTS.

Principal Elements.

Adjunct Elements.

SUBJECT....“He”.....OF THE SUBJECT....“That getteth wisdom”
 PREDICATE..“loveth”...OF THE PREDICATE.. _____
 OBJECT....“soul”.....OF THE OBJECT..... { “His”
 “own.”

PARSED BY THE CHART.

“He”.....Is an Element in the Sentence—Principal Element—
 Subject—Word—Pronoun—Personal—Masculine Gen-
 der—Third Person—Singular Number—Objective Case.

RULE 3.—“*The Object of an Action or relation must be in the Objective Case.*”

That getteth } Is an Element in the Sentence—Adjunct Element—Sen-
 wisdom... } tence—Adjective—Transitive—and limits “He.”

RULE 7.—“*Adjectives belong to Nouns and Pronouns which they describe.*”

“That”.....Is an Element in the *Auxiliary Sentence*—Principal Ele-
 ment—Subject—Word—Pronoun—Relative—Third
 Person—Singular Number—Nominative Case.

RULE 1.—“*The Subject of a Sentence must be in the Nominative Case.*”

“Getteth”...Is an Element in the *Auxiliary Sentence*—Principal Ele-
 ment—Predicate—Verb—Indicative Mode—Present
 Tense—agreeing with its Subject “that” in the Third
 Person—Singular Number.

RULE 2.—“*A Verb must agree with its Subject in Person and Number.*”

“Wisdom” . . . Is an Element in the *Auxiliary Sentence*—Principal Element—Object—Word—Noun—Common—Third Person—Singular Number—Objective Case.

RULE 3.—“*The Object of an Action is in the Objective Case.*”

“Loveth” . . . Is an Element in the *Principal Sentence*—Principal Element—Predicate—Verb—Indicative Mode—Present Tense—agreeing with its Subject “He” in the Third Person—Singular Number.

RULE 2.—“*A Verb in Predicate must agree with its Subject in Person and Number.*”

“His” Is an Element in the Sentence—Adjunct Element—Word—Adjective—Specifying—Possessive—and limits “soul.”

RULE 8.—“*A Noun or a Pronoun in the Possessive Case, is used Adjectively.*”

RULE 7.—“*Adjectives belong to Nouns which they describe.*”

“Own” Is an Element in the Sentence—Adjunct Element—Word—Adjective—Specifying—and limits “soul.”

RULE 7.—“*Adjectives belong to Nouns which they limit.*”

“Soul” Is an Element in the Sentence—Principal Element—Object—Word—Noun—Common—Third Person—Singular Number—Objective Case.

RULE 3.—“*The Object of an Action must be in the Objective Case.*”

The above is an appropriate MODEL for the following

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES.

1. The *man* who was present can give the particulars.
2. The *person* WHOM we met appeared very much alarmed.
3. I saw the *wretch* THAT did it.
4. We saw the *man* WHOM you described.
5. “Hesperus, that led
The starry host, rode brightest.”—*Milton*.
6. “Memory and Forecast just returns engage—
That pointing back to youth, this on to age.”
7. “There is something in their hearts which passes speech.”—*Story*.
8. “Behind the sea-girt rock, the star
That led him on from crown to crown
Has sunk.”—*Pierpont*.

9. "The mountain-cloud
That night hangs round him, and the breath
Of morning scatters, is the shroud
That wraps the conqueror's clay in death.—*Idem*.
- 10 "Mount the horse
Which I have chosen for thee.—*Coleridge*.
- 11 "Few be they who will stand out faithful to thee."—*Idem*.
- 12 "For cold and stiff and still are they who wrought
Thy walls annoy."—*Macaulay*.
13. "Ishmael's wandering race, that rode
On camels o'er the spicy tract that lay
From Persia to the Red Sea coast."—*Pollock*.
14. "The king granted the Jews which were in every city, to gather
themselves together, and to stand for their life, to destroy,
to slay, and to cause to perish, all the power of the people
and province that would assault them."—*Bible*.
15. "We have more than heart could wish."
16. "My punishment is greater than I can bear."

INDEPENDENT CASE.

RULE 6.—A Noun or a Pronoun, not dependent on any other word in construction, is in the Independent Case.

REM. 1.—As the grammatical Subject of a Sentence is limited to the Nominative Case of Nouns and Pronouns, so the Nominative Case is properly limited to the Subject of a Sentence. Hence the term "Nominative Case Independent" is inappropriate.

REM. 2.—The term "Independent Case" as applied to Nouns and Pronouns, indicates simply that they do not bear a part in the structure of Sentences as integral Elements.

This term includes the following six distinct conditions of Nouns and Pronouns :

1. Names of persons and things addressed. "Appellatives."
2. Explanatory words. "In Apposition."
3. Leaders of Independent Phrases. "Case Absolute."
4. In Predicate with Verbs. "Case after Neuter Verbs."
5. Words of Euphony.
6. Titles—and Exclamatory Words.

These conditions are exemplified in the following NOTES.

NOTE I.—The name of a person or thing addressed is in the Independent Case.

EXAMPLES.—1. “FRIENDS, ROMANS, COUNTRYMEN.”

2. “Come, gentle SPRING—ethereal MILDNESS, come.”

OBS. 1.—In the last example the word *thou*, understood, is the proper subject of “come.” The words “spring” and “mildness” are addressed, and are independent in construction. [See p. 85.]

NOTE II.—A Noun or a Pronoun, used to explain a preceding Noun or Pronoun, is in the Independent Case.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Paul*, the APOSTLE, wrote to Timothy.

2. “Up springs the *lark*, shrill-voiced and shrewd,
The MESSENGER of morn.”

OBS. 1.—This Note applies also to Phrases and to Sentences.

EXAMPLES.—1. It is our *duty* to STUDY.

2. “*It* is possible THAT WE HAVE MISJUDGED.” [See p. 235.]

OBS. 2.—An Independent Noun or Pronoun is properly a Logical Adjunct when it is used to describe or limit another word.

EXAMPLES.—*Paul* the APOSTLE.—*Peter* the GREAT.

REM.—“Apostle” describes “Paul,” by limiting the application of that name to a particular individual. [See p. 85.]

NOTE III.—A Noun or a Pronoun, used as the Leader of an Independent Phrase, is in the Independent Case.

EXAMPLES.—1. *The hour having arrived*, we commenced the exercises.

2. “Thus talking, *HAND* in hand, alone they passed
On to their blissful bower.” *Hand being in hand.*

NOTE IV.—A Noun or a Pronoun, used in Predicate with a Verb, is in the Independent Case.

EXAMPLES.—“Thou art a *scholar*.”—It is *I*.—“God is *love*.”

“He maketh the storm a *calm*.”

OBS.—A Noun or a Pronoun used in Predicate, may have the *form* of the Nominative or of the Objective Case.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "I thought it to be *him*."
 2. "It was not *me** that you saw."
 3. "It was not I that did it."

REM.—This idiom is established by good authority—ancient and modern—and grammarians can not well alter the custom.

"Nescire quid acciderit antequam natus es, est semper esse puerum."
 "Not to know what happened before you was born, is always to be a boy."

Here, "puerum" (boy) has the form of the Accusative Case (Objective), and can not be in the Nominative.

NOTE V.—A Noun or a Pronoun, used for Euphony, is in the Independent Case.

EXAMPLE.—"The moon *herself* is lost in heaven."

OBS.—In this Note are properly included Nouns and Pronouns, repeated for the sake of emphasis.

EXAMPLE.—"This, **THIS** is thinking free."

NOTE VI.—A Noun or a Pronoun denoting the Subject of remark—the title of a book—used in address, or in exclamation, etc., is in the Independent Case.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "Our *Fathers!* where are they, and the *Prophets!* do they live forever?"
 2. "Wright's *Orthography.*"

 Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.

1. "*Me* being satisfied, you ought to be so too."
2. *My* being fatigued, John finished my task for me.
3. I thought it to be he.
4. It was not me that did it.
5. It was not I that you saw.

OBS. 1.—Adverbial Sentences are often elegantly condensed into Independent Phrases.

EXAMPLES.

Sentence.—*When the hour had arrived*, we commenced the exercises.

Phrase.—*The hour having arrived*, we commenced the exercises.

* Well-established custom requires the same RULE in English that is given in our Greek Grammars. "The Antecedent is sometimes put, *by attraction*, in the case of the relative."

REM. 1 — “When the hour had arrived” is a Grammatical Adjunct of “commenced,” an *Adverbial Sentence*. “Hour” is the Subject of that Sentence ; hence, in the *Nominative Case*.

REM. 2.—“The hour having arrived,” is a Logical Adjunct of “commenced,” an *Independent Phrase*. “Hour” is the Leader of that Phrase ; hence, in the *Independent Case*.

Obs. 2 — By a custom not to be recommended nor allowed, except by “poetic license,” an Independent Phrase is sometimes preceded by a Preposition, which does not indicate a relation, nor properly connect it to an Antecedent.

EXAMPLES.—1. “WITH *arm in arm*, the forest rose on high,
And lessons gave of brotherly regard.”

2. “UPON *our horse becoming weary*, we procured lodgings
at a private house.”

REM. 1.—“With” is not necessary to the grammatical construction of the Sentence—its affix being simply to preserve the rhythm.

REM. 2.—The use of “upon” is unnecessary and improper.

EXERCISES IN THE USE OF THE INDEPENDENT CASE.

1. O *Absalom!* my son, my son!
2. Lend me your songs, *ye nightingales!*
3. How is it possible *not to feel grateful for such benefits!*
4. Other *things* being equal, we prefer a fruit-growing climate.
5. Thou art the *ruins* of the noblest man
That ever lived in the tide of time.
6. Henceforth I never will be *Romeo*.
7. John dislikes to be called an idle *boy*.
8. That little indiscretion made him my *enemy*.
9. His teeth *they* chatter still.

ADJUNCTS.

NOTE I.—Adjuncts belong to the words which they modify or describe.

THE FORMS OF ADJUNCTS

Obs. 1.—Adjuncts may consist of Words, Phrases, or Sentences.

EXAMPLES.—1. A *Word*.—We were walking *homeward*.

2. A *Phrase*.—We were walking *toward home*.

3. A *Sentence*.—“Let me stand here *till thou remember it*.”

NOTE II.—In the use of Adjuncts, that form should be employed which will most fully convey the sense intended.

OBS. 1.—Many Adjunct *Words, Phrases, and Sentences* are interchangeable.

EXAMPLES.

- Word Adjuncts.*—1. “An *honest* MAN is the noblest work of God.”
 2. “*Dark* DAYS are remembered.”
 3. “The *wind's* low SIGH.”
 4. JAMES CAME to school *early*.
- Phrase Adjuncts.*—5. A MAN *of honesty* is the noblest work of God.
 6. Let him remember the DAYS *of darkness*.
 7. The low SIGH *of the wind*.
 8. JAMES CAME to school *at an early hour*.
- Sentence Adjuncts.*—9. A MAN *who is honest*, is the noblest work of God.
 10. DAYS *which are dark*, are long remembered.
 11. The low SIGH *which the wind seems to make*.
 12. JAMES CAME to school *while it was yet early*.

OBS. 2.—But this interchange of Adjuncts is not always admissible.

EXAMPLES.

- Correct.*—“The *TIME of my departure* is at hand.”
Incorrect.—My *departure's* TIME is at hand. [See Obs. 3, p. 244.]
- OBS. 3.—Adjuncts are often Complex. One Adjunct *Word* may be qualified or limited by another *Word*.

- EXAMPLES.—1. *Two* HUNDRED dollars.
 2. *The* CLOUD's deep voice.—3. *The* WIND's low sigh.
 s. 4.—An Adjunct *Word* may be limited by a *Phrase*.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “From the shore, *EAT into caverns, by the restless wave.*”
 2. “Wisdom is too high *for a fool.*”

OBS. 5.—An Adjunct *Word* may be limited by a *Sentence*.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “He called so loud *that all the hollow deep resounded.*”
 2. “*OFT as the morning dawns* should gratitude ascend.”
 [See Diagram, p. 42, and Diagram 3, p. 44.]

OBS. 6.—An Adjunct *Phrase* may be limited by a *Word*.

EXAMPLE.—Arthur went *almost* to BOSTON. [See Diagram, p. 254.]

OBS. 7.—An Adjunct *Sentence* may be limited by a *Word*.

EXAMPLE.—“*NOT as the conqueror comes,*
 They the true-hearted came.” [See p. 254.]

THE OFFICES OF ADJUNCTS.

Obs. 8.—Adjuncts may be attached to any of the five Elements of Sentences.

1. *To the Subject*. . . . “The KING of shadows loves a shining mark.”
[See Diagram, p. 39.]
2. *To the Predicate*. . . . “And when its yellow luster smiled
O'er mountains yet untrod,
Each mother HELD aloft her child,
To bless the bow of God.”
[See Diagram, p. 62.]
3. *To the Object*. . . . “They undertake the noblest cause mankind can
have at stake.” [See Diagram, p. 59.]
4. *To the Adjective*. . . . “The truly VIRTUOUS man is not REGARDLESS of
his reputation.”
5. *To the Adverb*. . . . “Wisdom is TOO high for a fool.”
“Oft as the morning dawns should gratitude
ascend.” [See Diagram, p. 42.]

Hence,

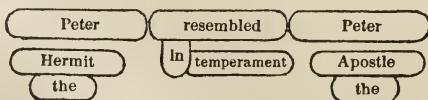
NOTE III.—All Adjuncts of *Substantives* are to be parsed as *Adjectives*; Adjuncts of *Verbs*, *Participles*, *Adjectives*, and *Adverbs*, are to be parsed as *Adverbs*.

Obs.—In addition to *Grammatical Adjuncts*, we have what may properly be called *Logical Adjuncts*. These are commonly *Substantives*, independent in construction, yet serving indirectly to limit or modify other Elements. [See p. 29.]

They may be Words, Phrases, or Sentences.

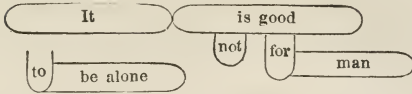
EXAMPLES.

Word.—PETER the *Hermit* resembled, in temperament, PETER the *Apostle*.



REM.—“Hermit” and “Apostle” are Nouns, yet serve to distinguish the two men named “Peter.”

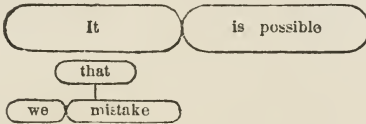
Phrase.—It is not good for man to be alone.



What is not good for man? To be alone. Hence,

REM.—The Phrase “*to be alone*” is a Logical Adjunct of “*it*.” It indicates what is meant by that Pronoun, and may be substituted for it—thus, *To be alone*, is not good for man.

Sentence.—It is possible that we mistake.



REM.—“*That we mistake*” limits the signification of the word “*It*.” For further Observations on Logical Adjuncts, see “*INDEPENDENT CASE*,” Part II., p. 85.

ADJECTIVES.



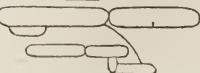
RULE 7.—Adjectives belong to Nouns and Pronouns which they describe.

Obs. 1.—It should be remembered that any word whose most important office is to specify, qualify, or otherwise describe a person or a thing, is, *therefore*, an Adjective. [See Def. 97.] A word which is sometimes or generally used as some other “part of speech,” may, in certain connections, be used Adjectively; and when thus used, it is an Adjective.

EXAMPLES.—An *won fence*.—*Working oxen*.

REM.—Every Adjective having its Substantive understood, becomes Pronominal. [See Adjective Pronouns, p. 93.]

Obs. 2.—An Adjective may consist of

-  A *Word*.—The *recitation* hour has arrived.
-  A *Phrase*.—The hour *for recitation* has arrived.
-  A *Sentence*.—The hour *in which we recite* has arrived.

ADJECTIVE WORDS.

OBS.—Adjectives describe things in two distinct methods :

1. As an ordinary epithet, in which the attribute is not *asserted*, but *implied* or *assumed*.

EXAMPLES.—1. A *sweet* apple.

2. A *few* inhabitants.

3. “Night, *sable* goddess, from *her ebon* throne,
In *rayless* majesty, now stretches forth
Her leaden scepter o’er a *slumbering* world.”

2. By *asserting* the attribute with the aid of a Verb or a Participle

4. The apple is *sweet*.

5. The inhabitants are *free*.

6. The world is *slumbering*.

7. “This latter mode of expression falls *short* of the force and vehemence of the former.”—*Murray*.

THE FORMS OF ADJECTIVES.

REM. 1.—Many words in the English Language are, primarily, Adjectives.

EXAMPLES.—Hard—soft—sour—sweet—good—bad—old—young.

REM. 2.—But most words used as Adjectives are Derivative Words.

EXAMPLES.—Arabian—virtuous—hopeful—masterly—children’s

REM. 3.—Many Adjectives have the same form as the Noun.

EXAMPLES.—A *silver* pencil—a *gold* pen—a *stone* bridge.

NOTE I.—That form of the Adjective should be used which is in accordance with reputable usage.

EXAMPLES.—1. A *gold* pen—not a *golden* pen.

2. A *silver* pencil—not a *silvery* pencil.

3. “*Golden* ears, though richly waving,
Must, in harvest, fall.”

4. “The *silvery* tide will bear thee.”

OBS. 1.—Two or more Adjectives are often used as distinct Adjuncts of the same Substantive.

EXAMPLES.—1. “*The tall dark* MOUNTAINS and *the deep-toned* SEA.”

2. “A *TEMPER, passionate* and *fierce*,
May suddenly your joys disperse,
At *one immense* EXPLOSION.”

REM.—But the same Noun rarely has more than one *Specifying* Adjective. [See *Specifying* Adjectives below.]

Obs. 2.—When two or more Adjectives belong to the same Noun, they may—

1. Severally qualify the Substantive only ; or,
2. One Adjective may belong to the Noun as modified by the other.

EXAMPLES.—1. “He was a *tall, athletic, vigorous* man.”

2. “Lamartine acted a conspicuous part in the *late French Revolution*.”

REM.—“Tall,” “athletic,” and “vigorous,” are Adjectives—each standing in the same relation to the Word “man.”

“French” describes or limits “Revolution ; “late” limits “French Revolution.”

Obs. 3.—This construction should be distinguished from that in which the Adjective—and not the Adjective and Noun combined—is modified by an Adverb.

EXAMPLES.—A *very* BEAUTIFUL flower.—A *long-neglected* duty.

Obs. 4.—A Possessive Specifying Adjective may be limited by another Adjective.

EXAMPLE.—“He heard *the* KING’S command,
And saw *that* WRITING’S truth.”

QUALIFYING ADJECTIVES.

COMPARISON.

REM.—As things are equal or unequal, similar or dissimilar, we have words indicating those differences.

NOTE II.—Care should be exercised in the choice of appropriate words to indicate Comparison.

1. COMPARISON OF EQUALITY.

Obs. 1.—Two or more things, similar in any given quality, are compared by the use of the word *As*, placed before the latter term.

EXAMPLES.—1. John is *as* tall *as* James.

2. Warner is not so fair *as* Arthur.

3. “England can spare from her service *such* men *as* him.”—*Lord Brougham*.

OBS. 2.—The *former* term of the Comparison of Equality may be preceded by *As* or *So*, and sometimes by *Such*. [See Examples above.]

As is commonly used in Affirmative Sentences.

So is used in Negative Sentences. [See Examples above.]

2. COMPARISON OF INEQUALITY.

NOTE III.—In Comparisons of Inequality, when but two things are compared, the former term requires an Adjective or an Adverb of the *Comparative Degree*.

EXAMPLES.—1. “They are STRONGER *than lions*.”—*Taylor*.

2. “Their instinct is MORE PERFECT *than that of man*.”

Exception.—Some good writers employ the *Superlative*.

EXAMPLE.—“The largest boat of the two was cut loose.”—*Cowper*.

OBS. 1.—The second term of Comparison of Inequality is commonly introduced by the word *Than*. [See Examples above.]

OBS. 2.—When the second term is a Substantive Word, *Than* is a Preposition.

EXAMPLE.—“*Than whom*, Satan except, none higher sat.”—*Milton*.

OBS. 3.—When the second term is a Sentence, *Than* is commonly a Relative Pronoun or a Conjunction.

EXAMPLES.—1. “He has MORE *than heart could wish*.”

2. “And there are LOVELIER flowers, I ween,
Than e'er in Eastern lands were seen.”

[For other Observations on *Than*, see “Conjunctions.”]

OBS. 4.—The second term of a Comparison may be suppressed when the sense is not thereby obscured.

EXAMPLES.—1. “We both have fed as well.”

2. “I have known *deeper* wrongs.”—*Mitford*.

NOTE IV.—Adjectives of the *Superlative Degree* are used when more than two things are compared.

EXAMPLES.—1. “The *richest* treasure mortal times afford is spotless reputation.”

2. “Thou art the ruins of the *noblest* man
That ever lived in the tide of time.”

NOTE V.—Comparative and Superlative Adjectives require different constructions.

OBS. 1.—The Comparative Degree requires the former term to be excluded from the latter.

EXAMPLE.—*Iron* is more valuable than *all other metals*.

REM.—In this example, “*Iron*” is put as one term of Comparison, and “*all other metals*” as the other term—two things are compared. Hence, the Comparative form.

OBS. 2.—The Superlative Degree requires the former term to be included in the latter.

EXAMPLE.—*Iron* is the most valuable of *all the metals*.

REM.—Here, “*all the metals*” are taken severally. “*Iron*” is taken from the list, and put in comparison with the many others—more than two things are compared. Hence, the use of the Superlative form.

NOTE VI.—Adjectives whose significations do not admit of Comparison, should not have the Comparative or the Superlative form.

EXAMPLE.—John's hoop is much more circular than mine.

Corrected.—John's hoop is much more nearly circular than mine.

NOTE VII.—Double Comparatives and Superlatives are improper.

EXAMPLE.—In the calmest and *most stillest* night.

OBS.—But *Lesser* is often used by good writers.

EXAMPLE.—“The *lesser* co-efficient.”—*Davies' Algebra*.

REM.—The Comparison of Adjectives is not commonly absolute, but relative. Thus, in saying This is the *sweetest* apple, I merely say that this apple possesses a higher degree of the quality than all other apples with which it is compared.

Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.

1. John is not as tall as James.
2. William is so tall as his father,
3. The magnolia is more beautiful as the althea.
4. William's ball is rounder than mine.

5. Eve was the fairest of all her daughters.
6. Eve was the fairest of all other women.
7. Eve was fairer than all her other daughters.
8. Nellie is the most loveliest of the girls.

SPECIFYING ADJECTIVES.

NOTE VIII.—Specifying Adjectives should be so used as clearly to signify the real intention of the speaker or writer.

REM. 1.—The peculiar province of Specifying Adjectives is to indicate the *individuality* of beings or things. Hence,

OBS. 1.—Specifying Adjectives should be used before Nouns taken in a restricted sense.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “*The* MAN of wealth and pride
Takes up *a* SPACE that *many* POOR supplied.”
2. “He has betrayed *the* CONFIDENCE of *his* FRIENDS.”
3. “*The* TRUTH of *that* PROPOSITION is self-evident.”

REM. 2.—But Nouns may be restricted by the use of *Phrases*.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “LOVE of *virtue* is exhibited in DEEDS of *charity*.”
2. “APPLICATION to *studies* secures EXCELLENCE in *scholarship*.”

OBS. 2.—Specifying Adjectives should not be used before Nouns taken in a general sense.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “*Man* needs but little here below.”
2. “*Confidence* is a plant of slow growth.”
3. “*Truth* crushed to earth shall rise again.”

OBS. 3.—Specifying Adjectives should not be used before Proper Nouns.

- EXAMPLES.—*Jackson* was the more skillful general ;
Webster, the greater statesman.

REM. 3.—Proper Nouns are rendered *Common* by the use of Specifying Adjectives.

EXAMPLE.—Lincoln is *the* *Washington* of the nineteenth century.

NOTE IX.—A Specifying Adjective should be repeated when its omission would occasion ambiguity or obscurity.

OBS. 1.—We properly repeat the Specifying Adjective before two or more Nouns specifically distinct.

EXAMPLES.—1. Man knows neither *the* day nor *the* hour of his departure.

2. *The* North and *the* South LINES are parallel.

3. “Bowen, *the* editor of ‘The Teacher,’ and *the* State Superintendent, will attend the Institute.”

REM.—The omission of “*the*” before “State Superintendent” would imply that “Bowen” is the State Superintendent.

4. The teacher and the pupil.

5. “*My* poverty and not *my* will consents.”

OBS. 2.—We repeat the Specifying Adjective when two or more Nouns are joined in the same construction and taken severally—especially if a part of the Nouns are suppressed.

EXAMPLES.—1. We have sold *the* black, *the* bay, and *the* white horse.

2. “*The* vain, *the* wealthy, and *the* proud,
In folly’s maze advance.”


3. *The* first, *the* third, and *the* fifth child were sons.

4. “The honorable the Legislature of the State of New York.”

NOTE X.—Specifying Adjectives should not be repeated before different Qualifying Adjectives used to describe the same thing.

EXAMPLES.—1. An ignorant rich man is less esteemed than a wise poor one.

2. “*The* North and South LINE is accurately drawn.

 Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.

1. Oldest pupil in this class is not wisest.
2. The proper study of the mankind is the man.
3. The North and South lines run east and west.
4. The past and present tense of that verb do not differ in form.
5. The North and the South lines marked on the map are called meridians.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

NOTE XI.—In the use of Adjectives that imply Number, such should be employed as agree in Number with their Nouns.

EXAMPLES.—A book—one book—three books.

This book—that book—some books.

OBS. 1.—But a Noun having two or more Adjectives differing in Number, may agree in Number with the one placed next it.

EXAMPLE.—“Full *many* A GEM of purest ray serene.”

OBS. 2.—One Numeral Adjective may qualify another Numeral.

EXAMPLES.—ONE *hundred* dollars—a *hundred* horses—FOUR *score* years—TWO *dozen* oranges.


NOTE XII.—A Substantive should correspond *in form* to the Number indicated by its Adjective, when the Adjective is necessarily Singular or Plural.

EXAMPLES.—1. “The field is *two miles* long and *one mile* broad.”

2. “*These hands* let useful skill forsake—
This voice in silence die.”

OBS.—*Exception*.—A few Nouns are used technically or figuratively in the Singular Number, with Plural Adjectives.

EXAMPLES.—A *hundred head* of cattle.—*Fifty sail* of the line.

 Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.

1. Mary has not been at home this six months.
2. The Ridge road is three rod wider than the Braddock's Bay road.
3. The surveyor's chain is four rod long.
4. Hence it is called a four rods chain.
5. William exchanged three pair of rabbits for ten dozen of eggs.

POSSESSIVE SPECIFYING ADJECTIVES.

RULE.—A Noun or a Pronoun in the Possessive Case is used Adjectively.

EXAMPLES.—*Webster's* Dictionary.—*Our* neighbor.

OBS. 1.—The Possessive Case is a term applied by grammarians, with reference to the *form* of Nouns and Pronouns. Nouns and Pronouns

in this Case do not always indicate possession; and they may be in the Nominative, in the Objective, or in the Independent Case.

EXAMPLES.

1. The peddler deals in *boys'* caps and *children's* shoes.
2. "And they both beat alike—only, *MINE* was the quickest."
3. "He is a friend *of* *MINE*, and lives next door *to* *SMITH'S*."
4. "THINE is the kingdom."

OBS. 2.—The sign of the Possessive Case is not always annexed to the name of the Possessor.

1. It may be transferred to an attribute following the name of the possessor.

EXAMPLES.—1. The *Pope* of Rome's legate.

2. "Whether it be owing to the *Author* of nature's acting upon us every moment."—*Bp. Butler*.

2. When two or more Possessives, immediately following each other, are alike applicable to the same word, it is attached only to the last.

EXAMPLES.—1. George, James, and William's father.

2. A. S. Barnes and Co.'s publications

OBS. 3.—But the sign of the Possessive should be repeated when one Possessive is used to specify another.

EXAMPLE.—Gould's Adam's Latin Grammar.

OBS. 4.—The sign of the Possessive should be repeated when the Possessives describe different things.

EXAMPLE.—"Heroes' and Heroines' shouts confusedly rise."

NOTE I.—Possessive Adjectives describe Nouns and Pronouns, by indicating possession, fitness, origin, condition, etc., etc.

EXAMPLES.

1. Boys' caps..... "Boys'" denotes the size of the caps.
2. Webster's Dictionary "Webster's" denotes the *author*.
3. "Heaven's immortal Spring shall yet arrive,
And *man's* majestic beauty bloom again,
Bright through the eternal year of *Love's* majestic reign."

OBS. 1.—A Noun or a Pronoun in the Possessive Case is often equivalent to an Adjective Phrase.

EXAMPLES.

1. The *people's* will The will of *the people*.
2. *Webster's* Dictionary A Dictionary *written by Webster*.
3. *Boys'* caps Caps *suitable for boys*.
4. "He heard the *king's* command . . The command of *the king*."
5. And saw that *writing's* truth." . . The truth of *that writing*.

Obs. 2.—But they are not always equivalent.

- EXAMPLES.—1. The love of *virtue* is not *virtue's* love.
 2. The desire of *leisure* is not *leisure's* desire.

Hence,

NOTE II.—Possessive Specifying Adjectives and Adjective Phrases should not be substituted the one for the other when they are not fully equivalent.

[See Examples above.]

Obs. 1.—The laws of interchange of Possessive Adjectives and their kindred Adjective Phrases are as follow :

1. When the Object of the Prepositional Phrase constitutes the *Agent* of an action, state, feeling, etc., *implied* in the Substantive limited, the Phrase and the corresponding Possessive Adjective are equivalent, and, therefore, interchangeable.

EXAMPLES.

1. The *people's* WILL The WILL of *the people*.
2. The *sun's* RAYS The RAYS of *the sun*.
3. *Webster's* last SPEECH The last SPEECH of *Webster*.

2. When the Object of the Prepositional Phrase constitutes also the Logical *Object* of an action, state, feeling, etc., *implied* in the Substantive limited, the Phrase and the corresponding Possessive Adjective are not equivalent, and, consequently, can not be interchanged.

EXAMPLES.

Correct.—"The DOCTRINE of *Divine sovereignty*."
Incorrect—Divine *sovereignty's* DOCTRINE.

3. When the Object of the Prepositional Phrase may be the Logical Subject or the Logical Object of the action, state, etc., *implied* in the Substantive limited, the use of the Phrase generally occasions ambiguity, and is inadmissible without the addition of some other Element.

EXAMPLE.—"The love of God shall make their bliss secure."

REM.—This may mean God's love to them or their love to God.

Obs. 2.—If we intend the former, the ambiguity may be removed by the Phrase *to them*, placed after the word "God," or, if the latter, by the word *their* in place of the word "the." Thus,

1. The love of God *to them* shall make their bliss secure.
2. *Their* love of God shall make their bliss secure.

Obs. 3.—Adjectives derived from Nouns and Pronouns in the Possessive Case, often retain their Substantive character, and may be qualified by other Adjectives.

EXAMPLE.—"He saw *that* WRITING's truth." "That" specifies "writing." He saw the truth *of that writing*.

REM.—This observation is also applicable to other Adjectives derived from Nouns and to Numeral Adjectives.

EXAMPLES.—1. "A *cast* IRON hinge." "Cast" qualifies "iron;" and "iron" is an Adjective.

2. TWO HUNDRED dollars. "Two" specifies "hundred" and "hundred," thus modified, limits "dollars."

Obs. 4.—A word in the Possessive form is often used to specify a Phrase.

- EXAMPLES. 1. "Upon MR. TALEOT's *being made* Lord Chancellor."
 2. "From OUR *being born into the present world*."

Obs. 5.—In constructions like the above, the Possessive sign should not be omitted.

Correct Construction.—All presumption of DEATH's *being the destruction of living beings*, must go upon the supposition that they are compounded."

Incorrect Construction.—1. "Nor is there so much as any appearance of our LIMBS *being endued with a power of moving*," etc.—*Bp. Butler*.

2. "A fair wind is the cause of a VESSEL *sailing*."

REM.—In the last example, the author intended to say that *wind* is the cause of an act—an act expressed by the word "sailing."

But he makes himself say that *wind* is the cause of a *thing*—a thing named by the word "vessel."

Corrected.—Wind is the cause of a VESSEL's *sailing*.

Obs. 6.—Possessive Adjectives are sometimes qualified by Sentences introduced by Relative Pronouns and by Phrases.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “How various HIS employments *whom the world calls idle.*” — *Wilson's Burns.*
2. “I have spoken of HIS eminence *as a judge.*”
3. “Heaven be THEIR resource *who have no other but the charity of the world.*”

REM.—It is the Substantive Element in the Possessive Adjective that is thus limited by the Auxiliary Sentence. Thus, “his” is equivalent to “*of him.*” and “*him*” is limited by the Sentence “*whom the world calls idle.*”

POSITION OF THE POSSESSIVE.

OBS. 7.—When the Possessive is used Adjectively, it is placed before the Noun or the Pronoun which it specifies.

- EXAMPLES.—1. The WIDOW'S *mile.*
2. The CULPRIT'S *confession.*
3. OUR *father* and OUR *mother.*

OBS. 8.—Like other Specifying Adjectives, it precedes Qualifying Adjectives belonging to the same Noun or Pronoun.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “The BROOK'S *bright wave.*”
2. “The WIND'S *low sigh.*”
3. OUR *devoted* father and OUR *affectionate* mother.

OBS. 9.—Possessive Adjectives, in addition to their primary office, sometimes introduce Auxiliary Sentences.

EXAMPLE.—“All are but parts of one stupendous WHOLE,
Whose body Nature is, and God the soul.”—*Pope.*

REM.—In this Sentence, “*whose*” is an Adjunct of “*body,*” and it is used also to introduce the Adjunct Sentence, “*Whose body Nature is, and God the soul.*”

OBS. 10.—The Possessive Adjective is often the *Logical Subject* of a Participle.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “I have an engagement which prevents *my staying longer with you.*”
2. “I allude to *your inviting me to your forests.*”—*Pope.*

Who invited me?—*you.*

This observation also applies to Substantives.

EXAMPLE.—The boy's mistake. *Who mistook?*—the boy.

ADJECTIVES IN PREDICATE.

NOTE III.—An Adjective, like a Participle, may be used in Predicate with a Verb, when the Verb requires its aid to make the assertion.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "His palsied hand *waxed strong*."
 2. "Canst thou *grow sad* as earth *grows bright*?"
 3. Vanity often *renders man contemptible*.
 4. Virtue always *makes man happy*.

OBS. 1.—Many English Verbs contain the signification of such Adjectives in themselves. Thus,

- "Waxed strong" has its equivalent, *strengthened*.
 "Grows bright" " " *brightens*.
 "Makes happy" " " *happifies*.

OBS. 2.—But not all Predicate Adjectives have their equivalent Verbs. Thus, for the Predicate, "renders contemptible," we have not the Verb, *contemptibleize*.

OBS. 3.—Participles, like Verbs, sometimes require the use of Adjectives to complete the sense. Adjectives thus used are said to be "*in Predicate*."

- EXAMPLES.—1. "The desire of *being happy* reigns in all hearts."
 2. Her highest happiness consists in *making others happy*.

OBS. 4.—Adjectives may be in Predicate—

1. With Transitive Verbs—Active Voice.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "They'll *make me mad*, they'll *make me mad*."
 2. "The study of science tends to *make us devout*."

2. With Passive Verbs.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "He *was made wretched* by his own folly."
 2. "The children *were rendered miserable* by the sins of the father."

3. With Neuter and other Intransitive Verbs.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "How *dear* to my heart *are* the scenes of my childhood."
 2. "*Be* not therefore *grieved* nor *angry* with yourselves."

4. With Verbs—Infinitive Mode.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “The study of science tends to *make* us *devout*.”
 2. “Dost thou well to *be angry*?”
 3. “I own it made my blood *run cold*.”

5. With Participles as Adjectives.

EXAMPLE.—“*Falling short* of this, we can not succeed.”

6. With Participles as Verbal Nouns.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “Her life was spent in *making* others *happy*.”
 2. “*Becoming angry* at trifles is indicative of a weak mind.”

OBS. 5.—This construction of the Adjective should be carefully distinguished from that in which it is used as a *representative* of an Adverbial Phrase.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “Caled entered every day *early* and returned *late*.”
 2. “The surging billows and the gamboling storms come *crouching* to his feet.”
 3. “The mind was well informed, the passions [were] held *subordinate*, and diligence was choice.”

“Early” is substituted for *at an early hour*.

“Late” “ at a late hour.

“Crouching” “ in a crouching attitude.

“Subordinate” “ in a subordinate condition.

Hence, “early,” “late,” “crouching,” and “subordinate,” are to be parsed—

1. As Adverbs—being used as *representatives* of Adverbial Phrases.

2. But in the analysis of these Phrases, these words are to be parsed, in their *individual* capacity, as Adjectives, qualifying their Substantives understood.

REM.—For Substantives in Predicate, see “*Independent Case*.”

FORM.

NOTE IV.—Adjectives used in Predicate should not take the Adverbial form.

EXAMPLES.

- Incorrect*.—1. William feels *badly* to-night. 2. I feel *sadly*.
 3. How *beautifully* it looks! 4. It appears *strangely* to me.
Corrected.—William feels *bad* to-night. I feel *sad*.
 How *beautiful* it looks! It appears *strange* to me.

REM.—It will be noticed that the Adjective in Predicate does not *modify* the Verb. It describes the Subject by the aid of the Verb. Hence,

OBS. 1.—Adverbs are not used as a part of the Grammatical Predicate.

OBS. 2.—The Verb used in Predicate with an Adjective is sometimes suppressed.

EXAMPLES.—1. “No position, however *exalted*, could satisfy his ambition.”

2. “A man may grow rich by seeming *poor*.”

REM.—“Exalted” is in Predicate with “*may be*,” suppressed.

“Poor” “ “ “*be*,” “

POSITION OF ADJECTIVES.

OBS 3.—An Adjective *Word* is commonly placed before its Noun and after its Pronoun: an Adjective *Phrase* or *Sentence* after its Noun or Pronoun.

EXAMPLES.

Word.—1. An *influential* man.

Phrase.—2. A man *of influence*.

Sentence.—3. A man *who possesses influence*.

OBS. 4.—But when an Adjective *Word* is limited or modified by a *Phrase*, it is commonly placed after its Noun.

EXAMPLES.—1. “Seest thou a man DILIGENT *in his business*.”

2. “Truth, CRUSHED *to earth*, will rise again.”

OBS. 5.—When the same word is qualified by two or more Adjectives, the one denoting the most definite quality should be placed next it; and, when one Adjective *specifies* and the other *qualifies*, the Qualifying Adjective is placed next the Noun.

EXAMPLES.—1. An *industrious* YOUNG man.

2. A *large* SWEET apple.

3. “Sound *the* LOUD timbrel o’er *Egypt’s* DARK sea.”

NOTE V.—An Adjective in Predicate is placed immediately after its Verb or Participle.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "Which MAKETH *glad* the heart of man."
 2. "Canst thou GROW *sad* as earth GROWS *bright*?"
 3. "His palsied hand WAXED *strong*."
 4. "AND the eyes of the sleepers WAXED *deadly* and *chill*."
 5. "How various his employments whom the world
 CALLS *idle*."

OBS. 1.—*Exception 1*.—When the Verb is Transitive, its Object is sometimes—not always—placed between it and the Adjective in Predicate.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "Vanity often RENDERS man *contemptible*."
 2. "Winter MAKETH the light heart *sad*."

OBS. 2.—*Exception 2*.—For the sake of euphony, for emphasis, or for rhythm, the Adjective is sometimes placed before the Verb.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "*Hard* is my fate, cried the heart-broken stranger."
 2. "*Bloodless* ARE these limbs, and cold."
 3. "*Hard, hard*, indeed, WAS the contest for freedom."

OBS. 3.—This construction should be carefully distinguished from that in which the Adjective qualifies the Object of the Verb.

EXAMPLE.—"But we left HIM *alone* with his glory."

EXERCISES IN REVIEW.

PAGE.

- 232.—What is an *Adjunct*?
 What may be the *forms* of Adjuncts.
 1. "A man *who has talents*, will succeed in business."
 Condense this by replacing the *Sentence Adjunct* by a *Phrase*.
 Replace the *Phrase* by an equivalent *Word*.
 Are all *Adjunct Words, Phrases, and Sentences* interchangeable?
 234.—What Elements of Sentences may be affected by Adjuncts?
 How are Adjuncts of Substantives to be parsed?
 235.—How are *Logical Adjuncts* commonly construed?
 Repeat RULE 7.—Make Sentences to illustrate.
 In what distinct methods do Adjectives describe Substantives?
 Is a Word used Adjectively in one Sentence, always an Adjective?
 Wherein do Adjectives commonly differ *in form* from Substantives
 of similar signification?
 236.—Repeat NOTE I.—Make Sentences to illustrate.
 What Adjectives are commonly used in *Comparisons of Equality*?

PAGE.

237.—What Word introduces the second term of the Comparison?

Supply the proper Words omitted in the following Sentences :

2. "Anna is—tall as Clarissa."
3. "Rachel is not—tall as Mary."

Repeat NOTE II.—Make Sentences to illustrate.

What Word introduces the second term of a *Comparison of Inequality*?

4. "Delia is taller—Isabella, but not fairer—Helen."

Supply the proper Words in the above Sentence.

238.—Repeat NOTE IV.—Make Sentences to illustrate.

Correct the following Sentences, and give proper authority for each criticism :

5. "Shakspeare is more faithful to the true language of Nature than any writer."—*Blair*.
6. "Gibber grants it to be a better poem of its kind than ever was written."—*Pope*.
7. "The Christian religion gives a more lovely character of God than any religion ever did."—*Murray*.
8. "Of all other nations, ours has the best form of government. It is, of all others, that which most moves us."—*Sheridan*.

239.—Repeat NOTE VII.—Make Sentences to illustrate.

Correct the following errors by the Note, or by the Observations ;

9. "Northern Spy is fine specimen of an apple."
10. "Lawrence is abler mathematician than a linguist."
11. "The highest title in the State is that of the Governor."
12. "Organic chemistry treats of the animal and vegetable kingdom."
13. "The north and south poles are indicated on the map."
14. "Mary, widow of the late Col. Clark, and the mother of the Governor, resides with us."

240.—Repeat NOTE VIII.—Make Sentences to illustrate.

15. "Substitutes have three Persons ; the First, Second, and the Third."—*Pierce's Grammar*.
16. "In some cases we can use either the Nominative or Accusative, promiscuously."—*Adam's Latin Grammar*.
17. "I doubt his capacity to teach either the French or English languages."
18. "The passive and neuter verbs I shall reserve for some future consideration."—*Ingersoll's Grammar*.
19. "E has a long and short sound."—*Bicknell's Grammar*.

PAGE.

20. "The perfect participle and imperfect tense ought not to be confounded."—*Murray*.
21. "There is, however, another, and a more limited sense."
22. "Novelty produces in the mind a vivid and an agreeable emotion."—*Blair*.
23. "Jewell the poet and the professor of English literature has criticised it."

241.—Repeat NOTE X.—Make Sentences to illustrate.

Correct the following errors :

24. "I have not been in London *this* five years."
25. "If I had not left off troubling you about those kind of things."—*Swift*.
26. "They are these kind of gods which Horace mentions."
27. "Many things are not that which they appear to be."

242.—Repeat NOTE XI.—Make Sentences to illustrate.

Correct the following errors :

28. "The wall is ten foot high."—*Harrison's Grammar*.
29. "A close prisoner, in a room twenty foot square."—*Locke*.
30. "These verses consist of two sort of rhymes."—*Formey*.
31. "'Tis for a thousand pound."—*Cowper*.

Repeat RULE 8.—Make Sentences to illustrate.

Correct the following errors :

32. "I have neither John nor Eliza's books."—*Nixon*.
33. "James relieves neither the boy nor the girl's distress."
34. "Which, for distinction sake, I shall put down severally."
35. "King James translators merely revised former translations."—*Frazee's Grammar*.

243.—Repeat NOTE I.—Make Sentences to illustrate.

244.—Repeat NOTE II.—Make Sentences to illustrate.

Correct the following errors :

36. "The General in the army's name, published a declaration."—*Hume*.
37. "The bill passed the Lord's house, but failed in the Commons."
38. "It is curious enough that this Sentence of the bishop is, itself, ungrammatical."—*Cobbett's Grammar*.
39. "We should presently be sensible of the melody suffering."
40. "This depends on their being more or less emphatic, and on the vowel-sound being long or short."

PAGE.

41. "Whose principles forbid them taking part in the administration of the government" -- *Liberator*.

247.—Repeat NOTE III.—Make Sentences to illustrate.

248.—Repeat NOTE IV.—Make Sentences to illustrate.

Correct the following errors :

42. "The group of little misses appeared most lovely and beautifully."

43. "Heaven opened *widely* her everlasting gates."

44. "The poor girl feels very badly about it." -- *Hawley*.

45. "The sight appeared terribly to me."

46. "Did not Lois look most beautifully at the lecture?"

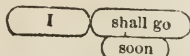
ADVERBS.

RULE 9.—Adverbs belong to Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs which they modify.

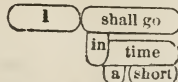
OBS. 1.—An Adverb may consist of a *Word*, a *Phrase*, or a *Sentence*.

EXAMPLES.

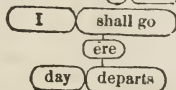
Word.—1. I shall go *soon*.



Phrase.—2. I shall go *in a short time*.



Sentence.—3. I shall go *ere day departs*.

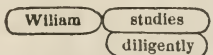


OBS. 2.—An Adverb may modify a *Word*, a *Phrase*, or a *Sentence*.

EXAMPLES.

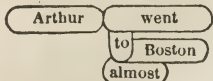
1. William *studies diligently*.

"Diligently" modifies a *Word*.



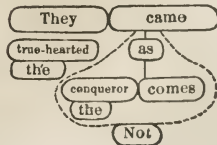
2. Arthur went *almost* to BOSTON.

"Almost" modifies a *Phrase*.



3. "Not *AS THE CONQUEROR COMES*,
They, the true-hearted, came."

"Not" modifies a *Sentence*.



ADVERBIAL WORDS.

NOTE I.—In the use of Adverbs, that form should be adopted which is in accordance with the best authority.

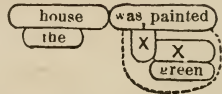
OBS. 1.—Most Adverbs are *derivative words*, and are generally formed by adding *ly* (formerly written *lie*—a contraction of *like*) to its Primitive.

- EXAMPLES.—1. A *just* man will deal *justly*.
2. A *foolish* man will act *foolishly*.

OBS. 2.—When an Adjective supplies the place of an Adverb, *by representation*, the Adjective form should be retained.

EXAMPLES.

1. The house was painted green.
2. Open thy mouth *wide*.



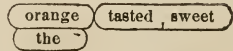
- Expanded*.—1. The house was painted *with green paint*.
2. Open thy mouth *to a wide extent*.

“*Green*” and “*wide*” are Adverbs by representation.

OBS. 3.—This construction should be carefully distinguished from that of Adjectives in Predicate.

EXAMPLES.

- Correct*.—1. The orange *tasted sweet*.
2. Velvet *feels smooth*.
3. Some *deemed* him wondrous *wise*.
4. The grass looks *green*.



- Incorrect*.—1. The orange *tasted sweetly*.
2. Velvet *feels smoothly*.
3. Some *deemed* him wondrous *wisely*.
4. The grass looks *greenly*.

OBS. 4.—The words which Adverbs properly modify are sometimes suppressed.

EXAMPLE.—“Thou canst but add one bitter woe
To those [] *already there*.”
To those which *are already there*.

OBS. 5.—Adverbs sometimes supply the place of Verbs which they modify.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “*Back* to thy punishment, false fugitive.”
2. “*I’ll* away to the pleasant land.”

Obs. 6.—Many words, commonly used as Adverbs, often take the place of Nouns, and become *Pronouns*.

- EXAMPLES.—1. Till *then*—for till that time.
 2. From thence—for from that place.
 3. And I have made a pilgrimage from *far*.—*Hosmer*.
 4. “O, let the ungentle spirit learn from *hence*,
 A small unkindness is a great offense.”

Obs. 7.—Participles become Adverbs whenever they indicate the manner of an action or modify a quality.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “’Tis strange, ’tis *passing* strange.”
 2. “A virtuous household, but *exceeding* poor.”

Obs. 8.—But most Participial Adverbs have the suffix *ly* added.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “He spoke *feelingly* on that subject.”
 2. She conducted herself most *lovingly* throughout the play.”

Obs. 9.—Or they become Adverbs by *representation*.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “Now it mounts the wave,
 And rises, *threatening*, to the frowning sky.”
 2. “The surging billows and the gamboling storms
 Come, *crouching*, to his feet.”

“Come” in a “*crouching*” attitude. [See Obs. 2, above, also p. 23.]

Obs. 10.—A few words, commonly employed as Prepositions, are sometimes used Adverbially.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “Thou didst look *down* upon the naked earth.”
 2. “And may, at last, my weary age
 Find *out* the peaceful hermitage.”
 3. “Master Sir Philip, you may come *in*.”

NEGATIVE ADVERBS.

NOTE II.—But one Negative Word or Particle should be used in asserting a negative proposition. For,

Obs. 1.—Two Negatives applied to the same act or quality make it affirmative.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “*Not* without cause.”
 2. “Such occurrences are *not* unfrequent.”
 3. “*Nor* did he *not* perceive them.”

OBS. 2.—Negative Prefixes in derivative words have the same force as Negative Adverbs.

EXAMPLES.—1. "He was *not unmindful* of his obligations."

2. "Such expressions are *not inelegant*."

3. "That costume would *not* be *inappropriate* to the occasion."

REM. 1.—Such expressions have not always the full force of the corresponding affirmative assertions, but serve to negative the negative assertion.

OBS. 3.—(a) Negative Adverbs are used primarily to modify Verbs.

EXAMPLES.—1. "They *wept* NOT.

(b) To modify Adjectives.

2. NOT *one* of the family was there.

3. "NOT *every* one that saith unto me, 'Lord ! Lord !' shall enter into the kingdom of heaven."

4. "Not all that run a race shall win the prize."

(c) To modify other Adverbs—*Words, Phrases, or Sentences.*

Word.—5. He is NOT *generally* in error.

Phrase.—6. "They died NOT *by hunger, or lingering decay,*
The steel of the white man hath swept them
away."

Sentence.—7. "NOT *as the conqueror comes,*
They, the true-hearted, came."

REM.—The influence of the Negatives, *not, neither, etc.*, is often exerted on Nouns, Phrases, and whole Sentences. And, generally, when a Negative occurs in connection with other Adjuncts, the influence of the Negative reaches the whole proposition, including the other Adjuncts. Thus, in Example 6, "*not*" modifies the phrase, "*by hunger or lingering decay.*" And in Example 7, "*not*" negatives the sentence "*as the conqueror comes.*"

Let the word "*not*," in Sentences 6 and 7, be parsed by a devotee of those systems of grammar that ignore the etymological offices of Phrases and of Sentences. Will he not also "ignore" common sense? Does "*not*" modify "*died*?" Then they are still living!

OBS. 4.—The Adverbs, *yes, yet, no, nay,* are independent in construction.

REM.—The relation of these words to others in the sentence or period is *logical* rather than grammatical. Their grammatical relation is generally to Elements in Sentences suppressed.

POSITION OF ADVERBS.

NOTE III.—The Position of Adverbs should be such as most clearly to convey the sense intended.

OBS. 1.—Adverbs which modify Verbs generally precede a Single Verb in Predicate.

EXAMPLES.—1. "Man *naturally* SEEKS his own happiness."

2. "*Then*, when I am thy captive, TALK of chains."

OBS. 2.—When the Predicate consists of more than one word, the Adverb is commonly placed after the first word in Predicate.

EXAMPLES.—1. "We CAN *not* HONOR our country with too deep a reverence."

2. "I HAVE *always* BEEN an admirer of happy human faces."

3. "I WILL *never* LEAVE thee NOR FORSAKE thee."

OBS. 3.—Adverbs modifying Adjectives are placed before their Adjectives.

EXAMPLES.—1. "We can not honor our country with *too* DEEP a reverence."

2. "We can not love her with an affection *too* PURE and FERVENT."

3. "The *very* RICH man can never be *truly* HAPPY."

4. "The selfish man can never be *truly* POLITE."

Exception.—The word *enough*, used Adverbially, is commonly placed after its Adjective.

OBS. 4.—Adverbs are placed before other Adverbs which they modify.

EXAMPLES.—1. "*How* LIGHTLY mounts the muse's wing."

2. "*Too* LOW they build, who build beneath the stars."

3. "Shepard's mill is driven *partly* BY WATER and *partly* BY STEAM."

4. "They died *not* BY HUNGER NOR LINGERING DECAY."

5. "Some work *only* FOR PLEASURE."

OBS. 5.—Adverbial Phrases are commonly placed after the words which they modify.

EXAMPLES.—1. "There CAME *to the beach* a poor exile of Erin."

2. "Time SLEPT *on flowers* and LENT his glass *to Hope*."

3. "The firmament GROWS BRIGHTER *with every golden grain*."

Obs. 6. --Adverbial Sentences are commonly placed after the words which they modify.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "The firmament GROWS BRIGHTER with every golden grain,
As handful after handful falls on the azure plain "
 2. "And I am GLAD *that he has lived thus long.*"

REM.—To the above rules for the Position of Adverbial Elements there are numerous exceptions. No specific rules can be given which will always be applicable. The judgment and taste of the writer are required to decide as to the Position of all the Elements of Sentences.

✍ Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.

1. "A Christian should always act benevolent."
2. The fields look greenly.
3. Some of the pupils looked sadly, and others looked gladly.
4. Never bestow your favors grudging.
5. Every one that runs a race shall not win the prize.
6. Every one that does not run a race shall win the prize.
7. I have been always a lover of children.
8. Some only work for pleasure. [So they never *play* for pleasure?]
9. That hat was expressly made for me.
10. "The comparative degree can only be used in reference to two objects."—*Brown's Grammar*, p. 140.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

PAGE.

- 253.—Repeat RULE 8.
 An Adverbial Element may consist of what?
 Make Sentences to illustrate Obs. 1.
 Adverbs may modify what sorts of Elements?
 Make Sentences to illustrate Obs. 2.
 Repeat NOTE I.
 How are Adverbs, derived from Adjectives and Nouns, formed?
- 254.—When may the Adjective *form* be retained?
 Make Sentences to illustrate Obs. 3.
 "Cora feels happily to-night."
 Correct that Sentence by Obs. 3. [See also p. 249.]
 When are Participles used Adverbially?
- 255.—Make Examples adapted to Obs. 7.
 Make Examples adapted to Obs. 8
 Make Examples adapted to Obs. 10.

NEGATIVE ADVERBS.

PAGE.

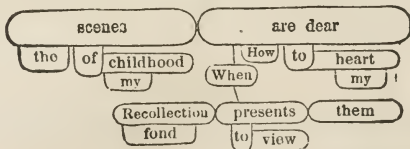
- 255.—Repeat NOTE II.
 “I have not seen none of your books.”
 Correct that Sentence by Obs. 1.
 “Warner was not unwilling to go to school.”
 Make an equivalent Sentence. [See Obs. 2.]
- 256.—What is there peculiar in the use of Negative Adverbs?
 Make Sentences to illustrate Obs. 3.

POSITION OF ADVERBS.

- 257.—Repeat NOTE III.
 What is the usual position of Adverbial Words?
William studies commonly diligently very.
 Correct that Sentence by Obs. 1 and 4.
 “I never will disturb my quiet with the affairs of state.”
 Correct that by Obs. 2.
 “The day was pleasant very, and the wind fair exceedingly.”
 Correct that by Obs. 3.
 What is the usual position of Adverbial Phrases?
 Make Sentences to illustrate Obs. 5.
- 258.—What is the usual position of Adverbial Sentences?
 Make Complex Sentences to illustrate Obs. 6.

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS.

“How dear to my heart are the scenes of my childhood,
 When fond Recollection presents them to view.”



ANALYSIS.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	{ The <i>Subject</i>“Scenes”	} INTRANSITIVE SENTENCE.	
	{ The <i>Predicate</i>“Are dear.”		
ADJUNCTS.	{ Of the <i>Subject</i>	{ “The”	A Word.
		{ “Of my childhood”.....	A Phrase.
	{ Of the <i>Predicate</i> ..	{ “How”.....	A Word.
		{ “To my heart”	A Phrase.
	{ “When fond Recollection presents them to view.” }	A Sentence.	

PARSED BY THE CHART.

- “How” An Element in the Sentence—Adjunct—Primary—
Word—Adverb—of Degree. [Repeat RULE 9.]
- “Dear” An Element in the Sentence—Principal Part—“in
Predicate”—Adjective. [Repeat NOTE III. to RULE 7.]
- “To my heart” An Element in the Sentence—Adjunct—Phrase—
Adverbial—Prepositional—Intransitive. [Repeat
RULE 9.]
- “Are” An Element in the Sentence—Principal Element—in
Predicate—Verb—Indicative Mode—Present Tense—
agreeing in Person and Number with “scenes.”
[Repeat RULE 2.]
- “The” An Element in the Sentence—Adjunct—Word—
Specifying—Pure. [See RULE 7.]
- “Scenes” An Element in the Sentence—Principal Part—
Subject—Word—Noun—Common—Third Person—
Plural Number—Nominative Case. [Repeat RULE 1.]
- “Of my child- } An Element in the Sentence—Adjunct—Phrase—
hood” } Adjective—Prepositional—Intransitive. [Repeat
RULE 7.]
- “When fond } An Element in the Principal Sentence—Adjunct—
Recollection } Sentence—Adverbial—Simple—Transitive. [Repeat
presents them }
to view.” . . . } RULE 9.]

REM. 1.—For the Analysis of the Phrases, “To my heart,” and “Of my childhood,” see p. 185.

REM. 2 — The Auxiliary Sentence, “When fond Recollection presents them to view,” may now be analyzed by the above formula, as a distinct Sentence.

PARTICIPLES.

RULE 10.—A Participle has the same construction as the “part of speech” for which it is used.

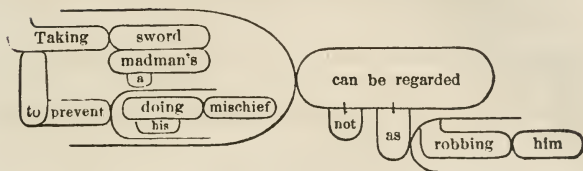
I. PARTICIPLES USED AS NOUNS.

NOTE I.—A Participle used as a Noun may be—

1. The Subject of a Sentence.

EXAMPLES.—1. “The BEGINNING of strife *is* as when one letteth out water.”

2. "The PLOWING of the wicked is sin."
3. "Taking a madman's sword to prevent his doing mischief, CAN NOT BE REGARDED as robbing him."



2. The Object of a Verb.

4. "I doubted *his having been a soldier*."
5. "While you strive to bear BEING LAUGHED AT."
6. "Taking a madman's sword to PREVENT *his doing mischief*, can not be regarded as robbing him."

3. The Object of a Preposition.

7. "In the BEGINNING."
8. "Poverty turns our thoughts too much upon the SUPPLYING of our wants: Riches *won* ENJOYING our superfluities."—Addison.
9. "Taking a madman's sword to prevent his doing mischief, can not be regarded AS *robbing him*."

NOTE II.—A Participle used as a *Noun*, *i. e.*, as the name of an action, retains its Verbal character, and may be followed by an Object when it is the leader of a Participial Phrase.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "They could not avoid GIVING *offense*."
2. "Its excesses may be restrained without DESTROYING *its existence*."
 3. RECEIVING *goods*, known to be stolen, is a criminal offense.
 4. We have succeeded in MAKING A BEGINNING.

REM.—"Giving offense" is a Substantive Phrase—Object of the Verb "avoid." "Giving" is the Leader of the Phrase. "Offense" is the Subsequent—Object of "giving."

In Sentence 4, "Making a beginning" is a Substantive Phrase—Object of the Preposition "in." "Making" is the Leader of the

Participial Phrase; “beginning” is the Subsequent—Object of “making.” [See also the preceding diagram.]

OBS. 1.—A Participle, being the Leader of a Participial Phrase, often has its Subject suppressed.

REM.—In Sentence 1, above, “they” is the *implied* agent of the action expressed by “giving.”

In Sentences 2 and 3, the agents of “destroying” and of “receiving” are neither expressed nor implied.

In Sentence 4, “we” is the implied Subject of “making.”

NOTE III.—The agent of an action expressed by a Participle is sometimes expressed, and is generally in the *Possessive Form*.

EXAMPLES.—1. “We have heard of *his* GOING to the Falls.”

2. “I doubted *his* HAVING BEEN a soldier.”

3. “Mr. Burton objected to his *son’s* JOINING the army.”

NOTE IV.—The sign of the Possessive Case of Nouns and Pronouns, used as the Logical Subjects of Participles, should not be omitted.

EXAMPLES.

Improper Construction.—1. “A fair wind is the cause of a *vessel* sailing.”

2. He opposed *me* going to college.

Corrected.—1. A fair wind is the cause of a *vessel’s* sailing.

2. He opposed *my* going to college.

OBS. 1.—The Logical Subject of a Participle may be in the Objective Case *only as the Object of a Preposition*.

EXAMPLES.—1. “The PLOWING of the *wicked* is sin.”

2. “By the CROWING of the *cock*, we knew that morning was nigh.”

REM.—“*Cock*” is the Object of the Preposition “of,” and is therefore in the Objective Case. But it is also the Agent of the Action implied in the word “crowing;” and is, therefore, the Logical Subject of the Verbal Noun “crowing.”

OBS. 2.—Phrases thus used as Adjuncts of Participles are sometimes

equivalent to Possessive Specifying Adjectives, and, therefore, are interchangeable.

- EXAMPLES.—1. The crowing of *the cock*.—The *cock's* crowing.
 2 “We listened to the singing of *the children*.”
 We listened to the *children's* singing.

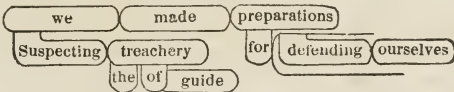
Obs. 3.—The Definitive, *the*, should be placed before a Verbal Noun whose Logical Subject is the Object of the Preposition *of*.

EXAMPLE.—“The PLOWING of the *wicked* is sin.”

Obs. 4.—The Definitive, *the*, should not be placed before a Verbal Noun whose Logical Subject is in the Possessive Case.

EXAMPLE.—“You object to *my* PLOWING the garden so early.”

NOTE V.—A Participle used to introduce a *Participial Phrase*, has the same construction as the Phrase which it introduces.



1. “*Suspecting the treachery of our guide*, WE MADE PREPARATIONS *for defending ourselves* from any hostile attacks.”

Here “*suspecting*” and “*defending*” are Participles, each used to introduce a Participial Phrase; but

“*Suspecting the treachery of our guide*” shows a condition of “WE.” Hence, an Adjective Phrase.

“*Suspecting*” describes “we,” by expressing incidentally, an act of “we.” Hence, a Verbal Adjective.

“*Defending ourselves*” is a Participial Phrase—Object of the Preposition “for.” Hence, a Substantive Phrase.

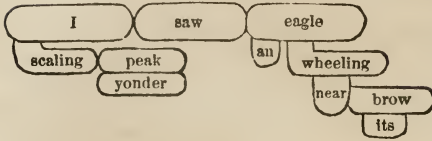
“*Defending*” is the name of an act, Object of the Preposition “for.” Hence, a Verbal Noun.

2. *Suspicious* of the treachery of our guides, we made preparations for *defense*.

“*Suspicious*” describes “we,” by expressing a condition or state of “we.” Hence, an Adjective.

“*Defense*” is a name, Object of the Preposition “for.” Hence, a Noun.

II. PARTICIPLES USED AS ADJECTIVES.



NOTE VI.—A Participle used as an Adjective belongs to a Noun or a Pronoun which it describes; and may be modified by Adverbs.

EXAMPLES.—1.

“Whose visages

Do cream and mantle like a *STANDING pond*.”

2. “*Scaling yonder peak*, I saw an *EAGLE*

Wheeling near its brow.”

3. “We saw *IT plunging* ’mid the billowy strife,
And *dashing* madly on to fearful doom.”

REM. 1.—“*Scaling yonder peak*” is a Phrase—Adjunct of “*I*;” hence, *Adjective*. “*Wheeling near its brow*” is a Participial Phrase—Adjunct of “*eagle*;” hence, *Adjective*. “*Near its brow*” is a Prepositional Phrase—Adjunct of “*wheeling* ;” hence, *Adverbial*.

In Sentence 3, “’Mid the billowy strife” is an Adjunct of “*plunging*.” “*Madly*,” and “*on*,” and “*to fearful doom*,” being Adjuncts of “*dashing*,” are *Adverbs*.

Obs. 1.—The Participle, used as an Element in an Independent Phrase, may be suppressed when the sense is not thereby rendered obscure.

EXAMPLES.—1. “Thus talking, hand [] in hand, alone they passed

On to their blissful bower.”—*Milton*.

2. “Now, *man to man* and *steel to steel*,

A chieftain’s vengeance thou shalt feel.”

REM. 2.—It should be remarked, that such omissions of Participles occur only when they have Adjuncts.

REM. 3.—In analyzing and parsing such Adjuncts, it is necessary to restore the Participles to which they belong. Thus, “*in hand*” is a Phrase—Adjunct of *being*, understood; hence, an *Adverbial Phrase*. “*To man*” is an Adjunct of *being opposed*, understood.

III. PARTICIPLES USED AS ADVERBS.

NOTE VII.—Participles used Adverbially, belong to Verbs, Adjectives, or Adverbs, which they modify.

EXAMPLE.—'Tis strange! 'tis PASSING *strange*.

OBS. 2.—Participles are seldom used Adverbially without the termination *ly*.

EXAMPLE.—“He *spoke* FEELINGLY on that subject.”

IV. PARTICIPLES USED AS PREPOSITIONS.

NOTE VIII.—A Participle used as a Preposition shows a relation of its object to the word which its Phrase qualifies.

EXAMPLE.—“He *said* nothing CONCERNING his temporal *affairs*.”

OBS. 3.—The young scholar often finds it difficult to determine whether a Participle is used as a Preposition or as an Adjective. His difficulties on this subject will vanish when he recollects that—

1. A Participle used as a Preposition does not relate to a Noun or a Pronoun—it generally introduces an Adverbial Phrase.

2. A Participle used as an Adjective always relates to a Noun or a Pronoun—it generally introduces an Adjective Phrase.

V. PARTICIPLES USED IN PREDICATE WITH VERBS.

NOTE IX.—A Participle used in Predicate asserts an act, being, or state, and may be modified by Adverbs.

EXAMPLE.—“We are *anxiously* EXPECTING to hear from William.”

NOTE X.—In the use of Participles in Predicate, the proper modification should be used.

1. When an action is to be predicated of the Subject, *i. e.*, when the Subject performs the act, the Active Participle should be used.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Henry* is RECITING his lesson.

2. People are building the church.

2. When the Subject is to be represented as receiving the action, the Passive Participle should be used

- EXAMPLES.—1. Henry's *lesson* is BEING RECITED.
2. The church is being built.

NOTE XI.—The Participial Phrase should not be employed when the use of the Infinitive Phrase would be more elegant.

EXAMPLES.—1. "If the case stands thus, 'tis dangerous *drinking*."
Better.—If the case stands thus, 'tis dangerous *to drink*.

2. "It deserves *remarking*."—*Harris's Hermes*.

Better.—It deserves *to be remarked*.

3. "He refused *complying* with the regulations."

Better.—He refused *to comply* with the regulations.

NOTE XII.—The Participial Phrase should be used in preference to a Sentence, or any other more complicated construction, which would express the same idea.

EXAMPLES.

Sentence.—1. *As I was scaling yonder peak*, I saw an eagle, *which was wheeling near its brow*.

Complex Prepositional Phrase.—2. *On scaling yonder peak*, I saw an eagle *in the act of wheeling near its brow*.

Participial Phrase.—3. *Scaling yonder peak*, I saw an eagle *wheeling near its brow*.

REM.—These Sentences are all grammatically correct; but the last gives the sentiment fully, and has the advantage of being the most concise, and is therefore to be preferred.

OBS.—The Logical Subject of a Participle may be suppressed only when the construction is sufficiently clear without it.

EXAMPLES.

Incorrect.—1. "Having resigned his commission, the company was disbanded."


2. "Counting the women and the children, the company was ascertained to be too large for the accommodations"

Correct.—1 (a) *He* having resigned his commission, the company was disbanded.

or (b) The captain having resigned his commission, the company was disbanded.

- Correct.*—2. (c) On counting the women and the children, the company was found to be too large for the accommodations.
- or (d) The women and the children being counted, the company was found to be too large for the accommodations.
- or (e) Counting the women and the children, we found that the company was too large for the accommodations.

EXERCISES IN REVIEW.

 Let the *errors* in the following Sentences be corrected by a proper application of the NOTES and OBSERVATIONS under RULE 9.

1. "It requires no nicety of ear as in the distinguishing of tones, or measuring time."—*Sheridan*.
2. "He mentions Newton's *writing of a commentary*."
3. "The cause of their salvation does not so much arise from their embracing of mercy, as from God's exercising of it."
4. "Those who accuse us of denying of it, belie us."—*Bently*.
5. "In the choice they had made of him for restoring of order."
6. "The Governor's veto was writing while the final vote was taking in the Senate."
7. "To prevent *it* bursting out with open violence."—*Robertson*.
8. "This must prevent any regular proportion of time being settled."—*Sheridan*.
9. "The compiler proposed *publishing* that part by itself."—*Adams*.
10. "Artaxerxes could not refuse pardoning him."—*Goldsmith*.
11. "They refused doing so."—*Harris*.
12. "Entering the cars, the seats were found to be all occupied."

THE INFINITIVE VERB.

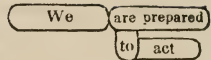
RULE 11.—A Verb in the Infinitive Mode is the Object of the Preposition *to*, expressed or understood.

REM.—A Verb in the Infinitive Mode is commonly used as the Subsequent of an Infinitive Phrase. Hence, it is an Element, not in a Sentence, but in a Phrase.

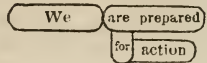
OBS. 1.—The Infinitive Verb partakes much of a Substantive character, generally expressing the *name* of an act, being, or state.

EXAMPLES.

We are prepared to act.



Equivalent.—We are prepared for action.



OBS 2.—The Infinitive Verb is never used as a *grammatical* Predicate; hence, it has no grammatical Subject. But it is often the *logical* Predicate of a Noun or a Pronoun, which may be in the Nominative or in the Objective Case.

EXAMPLES.—1. *We* love to *study*.

2. We requested *him* to *speak*.

REM.—“*We*,” the *grammatical* Subject of “love,” is also the *logical* Subject of “*study*.”

“*Him*,” the *grammatical* Object of “requested,” is the *logical* Subject of “*speak*.”

NOTE I.—Infinitive Verbs following the Verbs *bid*, *but*, *dare*, *feel*, *hear*, *let*, *make*, *need*, *see*, and sometimes *behold*, *have*, *help*, *know*, *observe*, *perceive*, and some others, do not require the Preposition *to*.

EXAMPLES.—1. “I plunged in and **BAD**E him *follow*.”

2. “He **DARE**S not *touch* a hair of *Cetiline*.”

3. “**LET** me *hear* thy voice *awake*.”

4. “Clara **HELP**ED me *work* that problem.”

5. “I can not **BUT** *suspect* that she assisted *Cora* too.”

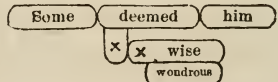
6. “I would not **HAVE** you *go* to-day.”

7. “Necessity **COMMAND**S me *name* myself.”

OBS 3.—The Infinitive Verb, with its Preposition, is often suppressed.

EXAMPLES.

1. “Some deemed him wondrous wise.”

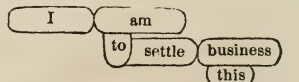


2. “Intemperance makes a man [] a fool.”

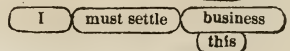
OBS 4.—The Infinitive is sometimes elegantly used for other Modes.

EXAMPLES.

1. “I am to settle this business.”—*Arthur*.



Equivalent.—I must settle this business



OBS. 5.—The Preposition *to* should not be replaced by the Conjunction *and*.


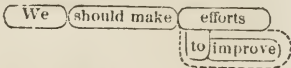
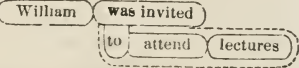
Incorrect.—Try *and* do as well as possible.

Corrected.—Try *to* do as well as possible.

THE INFINITIVE PHRASE.

OBS. 6.—The Infinitive Verb with its Preposition constitutes an Infinitive Phrase, and may be construed as a *Substantive*, an *Adjective*, or an *Adverb*.

EXAMPLES.

1. "To be, contents his natural desire."
 
2. We should make efforts to improve.
 
3. William was invited to attend lectures.
 

OBS. 7.—An Infinitive Phrase, used Substantively, may be—

(a) The *Subject* of a Sentence.

1. "To be able to read well, is a valuable accomplishment."

(b) The *Object* of a Preposition.

2. "We were ABOUT to retire."

3. "Be so kind AS to place that in diagram."

(c) A *Logical Adjunct*.

4. "It is our duty to make good use of our time."

REM.—In the opinion of most grammarians, the Verbs *love*, *desire*, *wish*, *expect*, and some others, take Infinitive Phrases after them as *Objects*. [See pp. 213, 214.]

OBS. 8.—An Infinitive Phrase, used Adjectively, may be the *Adjunct* of—

(a) *The Subject of a Sentence*.

1. "A constant PURPOSE to excel marked his whole career."

(b) *The Object of a Sentence*.

2. William has made EFFORTS to improve in speaking.

(c) *The Object of a Phrase*.

3. "He arrived in TIME to give his vote."

(d) *A Substantive in Predicate*.

4. That is the BUSINESS next to be done.

OBS. 9.—An Infinitive Phrase, used Adverbially, may be the Ad-junct of—

(a) *A Verb in Predicate.*

1. Will you ALLOW me to *place this in diagram?*

(b) *An Adjective in Predicate.*

2. We are READY to *depart.*

(c) *An Adverb.*

3. We were too late to *take the cars.*

OBS. 10.—The Infinitive, like other Phrases, is sometimes independent in construction.

EXAMPLE.—And, to be plain with you, I think you the more unreasonable of the two.

OBS. 11.—The Infinitive Phrase often follows the Words *as* and *than*.

EXAMPLES.—1. “An object so high *as* TO BE INVISIBLE.”

2. “He said nothing further *than* TO GIVE an apology for his vote.”

REM.—In the above and similar examples, *as* and *than* are to be regarded as Prepositions, having for their objects the Infinitive Phrases following. In like manner it sometimes follows other Prepositions.

EXAMPLE.—We are *about* TO RECITE. [See Obs. 7, above.]

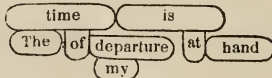
PREPOSITIONS.

RULE 12.—A Preposition shows a relation of its Object to the word which its Phrase qualifies.

OBS. 1.—The Object of a Preposition may be—

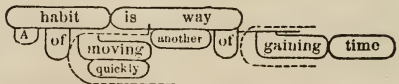
1. A Word.

“The time of my *de-
parture* is AT *hand.*”



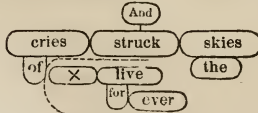
2. A Phrase.

“A habit of *moving
quickly* is another
way of *gaining
time.*”



3. A Sentence.

“And cries of ‘*live for
ever*’ struck the
skies.”



OBS. 2.—A Word, a Phrase, or a Sentence, being the Object of a Preposition, is, in its office, *Substantive*. [See “*departure*,” “*hand*,”

“moving quickly,” “gaining time,” and “live for ever, in the Examples above.]

OBS. 3.—Words which follow Prepositions as their Objects of relation are Nouns or Pronouns, and commonly have the Objective form.

REM.—For Exceptions, see p. 172.

OBS. 4.—But Words commonly used as Adjectives or Adverbs, often become Objects of Prepositions, and are then properly parsed as Substantives, in the Objective Case.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “He has faded from earth like a star from *on high*.”
 2. John is a friend of *mine*.
 3. “As *yet* the trembling year is unconfirmed.”

OBS. 5.—Scholars often find it difficult to determine the Antecedent term of a relation expressed by a Preposition—examples sometimes occur in which the relation of the Object of a Preposition seems to exist, not to any word, but to the whole Sentence. Generally, however, this question can be settled by ascertaining *which word is qualified by the Phrase* introduced by a Preposition—that word is the Antecedent term of relation.

EXAMPLE.—“A *flood of glory bursts* FROM all the *skies*.”

REM.—Here the Phrase “of glory” specifies “flood;” hence, “flood” in the Antecedent term of the relative expressed by “of;” and the Phrase is Adjective.

“From all the skies” modifies “bursts;” hence, “bursts” is the Antecedent term; and the Phrase is Adverbial.

OBS. 6.—Double Prepositions are sometimes allowed.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “*Out of* every grove the voice of pleasure warbles.”
 2. “There can be no question *as to* which party must yield.”

OBS. 7.—But two Prepositions should not be used, when one of them will fully express the sense intended.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “*Near to* this dome is found a path so green.”
 2. “Not *for to* hide it in a hedge.”—*Burns*.

OBS. 8.—A Preposition may be omitted when the sense is not thereby obscured.

- EXAMPLES.—1. They carried the child home—*to its home*.
 2. He remained three weeks—*during three weeks*.

Obs. 9.—POSITION.—The proper place for a Preposition is (as its name implies) before the Phrase which it introduces.

EXAMPLES.—1. “*In dread, in danger, and alone,
Famished and chilled THROUGH ways unknown.*”

Obs. 10.—But, by the poets, it is often placed after its Object.

EXAMPLE.—“*From peak to peak, the rattling crags AMONG,
Leaps the live thunder.*”

Obs. 11.—And sometimes in colloquial style

EXAMPLE.—“*You will have no mother or sister to go to.*”—*Abbott.*

REM.—This idiom is inelegant, and not to be recommended.

Obs. 12.—A Preposition commonly indicates the office of the Phrase which it introduces.

EXAMPLE.—See page 160.

Obs. 13.—Many words commonly used as Prepositions are sometimes employed, not as Elements of Phrases, but as Word Elements in Sentences. These are commonly Adverbs.

EXAMPLES.—1. “*Come on, my brave associates.*”
2. “*Lift up thy voice like a trumpet.*”
3. “*Down, down, the tempest plunges on the sea,*
4. “*And the mad waves rise up to buffet it.*”

NOTE I.—Care should be exercised in the choice of Prepositions.

Obs. 1.—The particular Preposition proper to introduce a given Phrase depends—

1. Usually on the word which the Phrase is to qualify.
2. Sometimes on the Object of the Phrase.

EXAMPLES.

Accommodate <i>to</i> .	Die <i>by</i> violence.	Compliance <i>with</i> .
Accord <i>with</i> .	“ <i>of</i> a disease.	Conformable <i>to</i> .
Accuse <i>of</i> .	Diminish <i>from</i>	Difficulty <i>in—with</i> .
Acquainted <i>with</i> .	Dissent <i>from</i> .	Eager <i>in—for</i> .
Ask <i>of</i> a person.	Insist <i>upon</i> .	Need <i>of</i> .
“ <i>for</i> a thing.	Made <i>of</i> a thing.	True <i>to</i> .
Bestow <i>upon</i> .	“ <i>by</i> a person.	Value <i>upon</i> .
Boast <i>of</i> .	“ <i>in</i> a place.	Worthy <i>of</i> .
Concur <i>with—in</i> .	Abhorrence <i>of</i> .	
Differ <i>from</i> .	Agreeable <i>to</i> .	

OBS. 2.—When the second term of a Comparison is expressed by a Phrase—

After a *Superlative*, the Preposition *of* is commonly used.

After a *Comparative*, the Preposition *than* is commonly used.

EXAMPLES.—Grammar is the most interesting *of* all my studies.

Grammar is more interesting *than* all my other studies.

OBS. 3.—When the second term of a *Comparison of Equality* is a Noun or a Pronoun, the Preposition *as* is commonly used—sometimes *like* is used.

EXAMPLES.—1. “He hath died to redeem such a rebel *as me*.”—*Wesley*.

2. “An hour *LIKE this* may well display the emptiness of human grandeur.”

OBS. 4.—Some writers improperly substitute the words *for* and *with* for *as*.

EXAMPLE.—“It implies government of the very *same* kind *WITH THAT* which a master exercises over his servants.”—*Bp. Butler*.

OBS. 5.—A Preposition and its Subsequent constitute a Phrase, generally constituting an Adjective or an Adverbial Adjunct.

EXAMPLES.

Adjective Element.—1. “The KING *of Shadows* loves a shining mark.”

Adverbial Element.—2. “Time SLEPT *on flowers*, and LENT his glass *to Hope*.”

REM. 1.—The Prepositional Phrase is also used as a Substantive Element in a Sentence. [See CLARK'S ANALYSIS, p. 115.]

REM. 2.—In the analysis of a Sentence, a Phrase contained in it is to be parsed, first, as one distinct Element in the structure of its Sentence; then the Phrase is to be analyzed, and each of its distinct Elements pointed out. [See pp. 184-5.]

CONJUNCTIONS.

RULE 13.—Conjunctions connect Words, Phrases, and Sentences, or introduce Sentences.

EXAMPLES.

Words....1. “In the beginning, God created the HEAVEN *and* the EARTH ”

Phrases... 2. "TO GIVE GOOD GIFTS *and* TO BE BENEVOLENT, are often different things."

Sentences... 3. "Thou art perched aloft on the beetling crag,
And the waves are white below."

OBS. 1.—Words connected by Conjunctions have a similar construction.

EXAMPLES.—1. "God created the *heaven* **AND** the *earth*."

2. "Time *slept* on flowers, **AND** *lent* his glass to Hope."

3. "A *great* **AND** *good* man has fallen."

REM.—"Heaven" and "earth" are alike Objects of "created." "Slept" and "lent" are Predicates of "Time." "Great" and "good" describe "man."

OBS. 2.—But they have not necessarily similar modifications.

EXAMPLE.—"Every teacher *has* **AND** *must have* his own particular way of imparting knowledge."—*McElligott*.

REM.—"Has" and "must have" are Predicates of "teacher"—but they are not of the same Mode.

OBS. 3.—Phrases and Sentences used as Elements in the structure of a Principal Sentence, have a similar construction when connected by Conjunctions.

EXAMPLES.—1. "He served his country *in the cabinet* **AND** *in the field*."

2. "*To eat* **AND** *to sleep*, constitute the sum of his employments."

3. "*While I am his* **AND** *he is mine*,
I'm ever safe from ill."

OBS. 4.—But Conjunctions may introduce Principal Sentences, without connecting them to any Word or Sentence in construction.

EXAMPLES.—1. "*And* who says this?"

2. "*That* I have taken this old man's daughter is most true."

3. "*And* I am glad *that* he has lived thus long.

OBS. 5.—Conjunctions introducing Adjunct Sentences connect their Sentences to the Word modified by such Auxiliaries.

EXAMPLES.—1. "And, **IF** I sought,

Think'st thou no other *could be brought*?"

2. "As ye journey, sweetly *sing*."

3. "How *dear* to my heart *are* the scenes of my childhood,
WHEN fond recollection presents them to view."

[See Diagram, p. 261.]

OBS. 6.—But Auxiliary Substantive Sentences are simply *introduced* by Conjunctions.

EXAMPLES.—1. "THAT all men are created equal, is a self-evident truth."

2. "He knew not THAT *the chieftain lay Unconscious of his son.*"

[See Diagram, p. 214.]

OBS. 7.—The *Position* of Sentences often determines their connection, without the use of Conjunctions.

EXAMPLES.—1. "The time may come *you need not run.*"—Thomson.

2. "Milton! thou shouldst be living at this hour—
[For] England hath need of thee."

3. "But Brutus says, *he was ambitious.*"

OBS 8.—Auxiliary Adjective Sentences are commonly introduced by Relative Pronouns and by Possessive Adjectives derived from them.

EXAMPLES.—1. "He WHO *filches from me my good name,*
Robs me of that WHICH *not enriches him.*"

2. "Lo the poor Indian, WHOSE *untutored mind*
Sees God in clouds or hears him in the wind."

3. "Thou hadst a voice WHOSE *sound was like the sea.*"

OBS. 9.—Conjunctions that introduce Auxiliary Adverbial Sentences, and some others, indicate the *offices* of the Sentences which they introduce.

If, Unless, etc., indicate *condition*. *As, When, Before, etc.,* indicate *time*. *For, Hence, Therefore, etc.,* indicate an *inference* or *cause*. *But, Yet, Nevertheless, etc.,* indicate *restriction* or *apposition*. *Nor, Neither, etc.,* indicate a *negation*.

EXAMPLES.—1. "*If sinners entice thee, consent thou not.*"

2. "Speak of me *as I am*—nothing extenuate,
Nor set down aught in malice."

3. "Then, *when I AM THY CAPTIVE,* talk of chains."

4. "I go, *but I return.*"

Exception.—The Conjunction *when* may introduce an Adjective Sentence that limits a Noun indicating *time*.

EXAMPLE.—Do you remember the TIME *when Lee surrendered to Grant?*

Exception.—The Conjunction *where* may introduce an Adjective Sentence that limits a Noun indicating *place*.

EXAMPLE.—Is there some favored spot *where mortals weep no more?*

Caution.—The words *where* and *when* are often improperly used for the Phrase *in which*.

Incorrect.—“A limited monarchy is a government *where* the powers and duties of the monarch are limited by a constitution.”

Corrected.—A limited monarchy is one *in which* the powers and duties of the monarch are limited by a constitution.

OBS. 10.—Conjunctions may be omitted only when the connection is sufficiently clear without them.

EXAMPLES.—1. “Unnumbered systems, [] suns, and worlds,
Unite to worship thee ;
2. While thy majestic greatness fills
Space, [] Time, [] Eternity.”

OBS. 11.—The Adverb “*how*” is sometimes improperly used instead of the Conjunction “*that*.”

EXAMPLE.—“She tells me *how*, with eager speed,
He flew to hear my vocal reed.”—*Shenstone*.

OBS. 12.—Conjunctions sometimes introduce the remnant of a Sentence.

EXAMPLE.—*Though* [] *afflicted*, he is happy.

OBS. 13.—POSITION.—The proper place for a Conjunction is before the Sentence which it introduces, and between the Words or Phrases which it connects.

EXAMPLE.—“And there lay the rider, *distorted* AND *pale*,
With the *dew* on his brow AND the *rust* on his mail.”

OBS. 14.—But in Complex Sentences, the Conjunction introducing the Principal Sentence is commonly placed first, and that introducing the Auxiliary Sentence immediately following.

EXAMPLE.—“And *when* its yellow *luster* *smiled*,
O'er mountains yet untrod,
Each MOTHER HELD aloft her CHILD
To bless the bow of God.”

But to this rule there are exceptions.

EXAMPLES.—1. “They kneeled BEFORE *they fought*.”
2. “How vain are all these glories, all our pains,
UNLESS *good sense* preserve what beauty gains.”—*Pope*.

CORRESPONDING CONJUNCTIONS.

OBS. 15.—Many Conjunctions correspond to Adverbs, to Prepositions, and to other Conjunctions.

As.so. “ *As* is the mother, *so* is the daughter.”

So.as. “ *Mary* is not *so* cheerful *as* usual.”

Both. . . .and. “ *Both* good *and* bad were gathered in one group.”

Either. . .or. “ *Either* you mistake, *or* I was misinformed.”

Not.nor. “ Prepositions should *not* be inserted *nor* omitted contrary to general usage.”

Neither. . .nor. “ *Neither* Alice *nor* Caroline has been here to-day.”

Whether. or. “ I care not *whether* you go *or* stay.”

So.that. “ He called *so* loud *that* all the hollow deep.”

Such.that. “ My engagements are *such* *that* I can not go.”

If.then. “ *If* you will take the right, *then* I will go to the left.”

Not only. but also. “ She was *not only* vain, *but also* extremely ignorant.”

Though. yet. “ *Though* man live a hundred years, *yet* is his life as vanity.”

Because. therefore. “ *Therefore* doth my Father love me, *because* I lay down my life.”

REM.—The Antecedent corresponding word is sometimes expletive.

OBS. 16.—Double Conjunctions are sometimes used.


EXAMPLES.—1. “ *As though* he had not been anointed with oil.”

2. “ *And yet*, fair bow, no fabling dreams,
But words of the Most High
Have told why first thy robe of beams
Was woven in the sky.”

OBS. 17.—But they may not be used when one of them would fully express the connection.

EXAMPLE.—“There would be no doubt *but that* they would remain.”

The word “*but*” is unnecessary and improper.

 Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.

1. William is not as cheerful as usual.
2. Either you mistake, else I was misinformed.
3. Neither wealth or fame render a man happy.
4. Prepositions should not be inserted or omitted contrary to general usage.—*Kent*, p. 435.
5. I can not doubt but that Robert will return.

EXCLAMATIONS.

RULE 14.—Exclamations have no dependent construction,

OBS.—Exclamations may be followed by Words, Phrases, or Sentences.

- EXAMPLES.**—1. “O Scotia! my dear, my native soil.”
 2. “Wo! wo! to the riders that trample thee down.”
 3. “O that I could again recall
 My early joys, companions all!”

WORDS OF EUPHONY.

NOTE.—Words of Euphony are, in their offices, chiefly rhetorical.

REM.—The Principles of Euphony are much required in the structure of all languages; for Euphony, words are altered in form, position, and office—and they are, for Euphony, created or omitted.

OBS.—Euphony allows—

1. The Transposition of Words in a Sentence.

EXAMPLE.—“From peak to peak, the rattling *crag*s AMONG,
 Leaps the live thunder.”

2. The omission of a letter or syllable.

EXAMPLE.—“Hark! 'tis the breeze of twilight calling.”

3. The substitution of one letter for another.

EXAMPLES.—1. Collect, for *Conlect*.
 2. Syllogism, “*Sunlogism*.
 3. Immigrant, “*Immigrant*.”

4. The addition of a letter, syllable, or word.

EXAMPLE.—“It was his bounden duty thus to act.”

5. A word to be separated into parts, and another word inserted between them.

EXAMPLE.—“*How MUCH soever* we may feel their force.”

6. A word to be used not in its ordinary office.

EXAMPLES.—1. “And there lay the steed with his nostril *AT* *vide*.”
 2. “The more I see of this method, *THE* *better* I *if* *t*.”

POSITION.

NOTE.—Words of Euphony should be placed in their appropriate connection.

OBS. 1.—In the following examples this principle is violated :

1. “To think of others, and not *only* of himself.”

Here “only” is used to render “himself” emphatic. A better position would be—“and not of himself *only*.”

2. “Joyous Youth and manly Strength and stooping Age are *even* here.”

Better.—Joyous Youth and manly Strength and *even* STOOPIING AGE are here.

3. “When our hatred is violent, it sinks us *even* beneath those we hate.”

Better.—It sinks us beneath *even* THOSE WE HATE.

OBS. 2.—A Word *repeated* in the same connection is to be regarded as a word of Euphony.

EXAMPLES.—“Down! *down!* the tempest plunges on the sea.”

“For life! *for life,* their flight they ply.”

GENERAL RULES.

1. In constructing a Sentence, such Words should be chosen as will most clearly convey the sense intended—regard being had also to variety and other principles of taste.

2. In expressing Complex ideas, judgment and taste are to be exercised in the use of Phrases and Sentences, when they may equally convey the sense.

3. That Modification of Words should be adopted which is in accordance with the most reputable usage.

4. The relative *Position* of Words, Phrases, and Sentences should be such as to leave no obscurity in the sense.

5. Involved Complex Sentences should not be used when Simple or Independent Sentences would better convey the sense.

RECAPITULATION OF THE RULES OF SYNTAX.

RULE 1.—THE SUBJECT OF A SENTENCE—NOUN OR PRONOUN.

The Subject of a Sentence must be in the Nominative Case.

RULE 2.—PREDICATE OF A SENTENCE—VERB.

A Verb must agree with its Subject in Person and Number.

RULE 3.—THE OBJECT OF A SENTENCE OR PHRASE—NOUN OR PRONOUN.

The Object of an action or relation must be in the Objective Case.

RULE 4.—PRONOUNS.

A Pronoun must agree with its Antecedent in Gender, Person, and Number.

RULE 5.—ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

Adjective Pronouns are substituted for the Nouns which they qualify.

RULE 6.—INDEPENDENT CASE—NOUN OR PRONOUN.

A Noun or a Pronoun not dependent on any other word in construction, is in the Independent Case.

RULE 7.—ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives belong to Nouns and Pronouns which they describe:

RULE 8.—POSSESSIVE SPECIFYING ADJECTIVES.

A Noun or a Pronoun in the Possessive Case is used Adjectively.

RULE 9.—ADVERBS.

Adverbs belong to Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs which they modify.

RULE 10.—PARTICIPLES.

A Participle has the same construction as the "part of speech" for which it is used.

RULE 11.—VERBS—INFINITIVE.

A Verb in the Infinitive Mode is the Object of the Preposition *to*, expressed or understood.

RULE 12.—PREPOSITIONS.

A Preposition shows a relation of its Object to the word which its Phrase qualifies.

RULE 13.—CONJUNCTIONS.

Conjunctions connect Words, Phrases, and Sentences, or introduce Sentences.

RULE 14.—EXCLAMATIONS.

Exclamations have no dependent construction.

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

[See Models on p. 261.]

1. "He was stirred
With such an agony he sweat extremely."—*Henry VIII.*, ii. 2.
2. "But it is fit things be stated as they are considered—as they really are."—*Bp. Butler.*
3. "He whose soul
Ponders this true equality, may walk
The fields of earth with gratitude and hope."—*Wordsworth.*
4. "Before we passionately desire anything which another enjoys,
we should examine into the happiness of its possessor."
5. "They say, 'this shall be,' and it is,
For ere they act, they think."—*Burns.*
6. "My heart is awed within me, *when I think* of the great miracle
that still goes on in silence round me."
7. "Take good heed,
Nor there be modest where thou shouldst be proud."—*Young.*
8. "Ambition saw that stooping Rome could bear
A master, *nor* had virtue to be free."—*Thomson.*

PART IV.

PROSODY.

DEF. 1.—That part of the Science of Language which treats of utterance, is called *Prosody*.

OBS.—Utterance is modified by *Pauses*, by *Accent*, and by the laws of *Versification*.

PAUSES.

DEF. 2.—Pauses are cessations of the voice in reading or speaking.

OBS. 1.—Pauses are { Rhetorical and
Grammatical.

OBS. 2.—Rhetorical Pauses are useful chiefly in arresting attention. They are generally made after or immediately before emphatic words. They are not indicated by marks.

EXAMPLES.—There is a calm for those who weep,
A rest for weary pilgrims found.

OBS. 3.—Grammatical Pauses are useful—in addition to their Rhetorical effect—in determining the sense.

They are indicated by

MARKS OF PUNCTUATION.

They are—

The Comma..... ,	The Period..... .
The Semicolon..... ;	The Interrogation.... ?
The Colon..... :	The Exclamation..... !
The Dash —	

OBS. 4.—In its Rhetorical office,

The Comma requires a short pause in reading.

The Semicolon, a pause longer than the Comma.

The Colon, a pause longer than the Semicolon.

The Period requires a full pause.

The Dash, the Marks of Exclamation and Interrogation, require pauses corresponding with either of the other marks.

REM.—In the use of Marks of Punctuation, good writers differ; and it is exceedingly difficult for the Teacher to give Rules for their use that can be of general application.

The following Rules are the most important :

COMMA.

RULE 1.—When more than two words of the same construction occur consecutively, the Comma should be repeated after each.

EXAMPLES.

- Correct.*—1. “Veracity, justice, and charity are essential virtues.”
 2. “There is such an exactness in definition, such a pertinence in proof, such a perspicuity in his detection of sophisms, as have been rarely employed in the Christian cause.”—*B. B. Edwards.*

- Incorrect.*—3. “The dripping rock the mountain’s misty top
 Swell on the sight and brighten with the dawn.”
 4. Fame wisdom love and power were mine.

OBS.—*Exception.*—The Comma is not placed between an Adjective and its Noun, although preceded by other Adjectives of the same construction.

EXAMPLES.

- Correct.*—1. “David was a brave, martial, enterprising prince.”
 2. “With that dull-rooted, callous impudence.”
Incorrect.—3. “The tall, dark, mountains and the deep-toned sea.”
 Ah! how unjust to Nature and himself,
 Is thoughtless, thankless, inconsistent, man!

RULE 2.—The parts of a Complex Sentence should be separated by a Comma, when the Auxiliary precedes the Principal Sentence.

EXAMPLES.

- Correct.*—1. “Where wealth and freedom reign, contentment fails.”
 2. “If thine enemy hunger, feed him; if he thirst, give him drink.”
Incorrect.—3. “When the cock crew he wept”
 4. “As ye journey sweetly sing.”

RULE 3.—An Adjunct Phrase or Sentence, used to express an incidental fact, and placed between the parts of the Principal Sentence, is separated by Commas.

EXAMPLES.

- Correct.*—1. “The grave, *that never spoke before,*
Hath found, *at length,* a tongue to chide.”
Incorrect.—2. “Truth crushed to earth will rise again.”
3. “Rise sons of harmony and hail the morn.”

Exception.—But when an Adjunct Phrase or Sentence which is indispensable in perfecting the sense, immediately follows the word which it qualifies, the Comma should not intervene.

EXAMPLES.

- Correct.*—1. “Every one *that findeth me,* shall slay me.”
2. “Let school-taught pride dissemble all it can.”
Incorrect.—3. “The fur, that warms a monarch, warmed a bear.”

RULE 4.—Words, Phrases, and Sentences thrown in between the parts of a Principal Sentence are separated by Commas.

EXAMPLES.

- Correct.*—1. “Go, *then,* where, *wrapt in fear and gloom,*
Fond hearts and true are sighing.”
2. “Now, *therefore,* I pray thee, let thy servant abide.”
Incorrect.—3. “It is a clear lake the very picture *ordinarily* of repose.”

RULE 5.—A Phrase or a Sentence used as the Subject of a Verb requires a Comma between it and the Verb.

EXAMPLES.

- Correct.*—1. *To do good to others,* constitutes an important object of existence.
2. *That we are rivals,* does not necessarily make us enemies.
Incorrect.—3. “That all men are created equal is a self-evident truth.”
“His being a minister prevented his rising to civil power.”

RULE 6.—Words used in direct address should be separated by a Comma.

EXAMPLES.

- Correct.*—1. “Thou, whose spell can raise the dead,
Bid the prophet’s form appear.”

Incorrect.—2. “Samuel raise thy buried head
King behold the phantom scer!”

RULE 7.—Adjunct Sentences, Phrases, and sometimes Words, not in their natural position, should be separated by a Comma.

EXAMPLES.

Correct.—1. “Into this illustrious society, he whose character I have endeavored feebly to portray, has, without doubt, entered.”

2. “He, like the world, his ready visit pays,
Where Fortune smiles.”

Incorrect.—3. “To him who in the love of Nature holds
Communion with her visible forms
She speaks a various language.”

Obs.—An Independent Phrase should be separated from its Sentence by a Comma.

Correct.—“Thus talking, *hand in hand* alone they passed.”

Incorrect.—“Captain Smith, having gone to sea his wife, desires the prayers of the congregation for his safe return.”

SEMICOLON.

RULE 8.—The Semicolon is used at the close of a Sentence which, by its terms, promises an additional Sentence.

EXAMPLES.

Correct.—1. “The Essayists occupy a conspicuous place in the last century; but, somehow, I do not feel disposed to set much store by them.”

Incorrect.—2. “It thunders but I tremble not
My trust is firm in God.”

3. “Wisdom is better than rubies,
It can not be gotten for gold.”

Obs.—By many writers, the Semicolon is used to separate short Sentences which have not a close dependence to each other.

EXAMPLES.

Correct.—1. “He was a plain man, without any pretension to pulpit eloquence, or any other accomplishment; he had no gift of imagination; his language was hard and dry; and his illustrations, homely.”

Incorrect.—2. “I had a seeming friend—I gave him gifts and he was
gone
I had an open enemy I gave him gifts, and won him—
The very heart of hate melteth at a good man’s love.”

COLON.

RULE 9.—The Colon is used at the close of a Sentence, when another Sentence is added as a direct illustration or inference.

EXAMPLES.

- Correct.*—1. “Let me give you a piece of good counsel, my cousin :
follow my laudable example : write when you can :
take Time’s forelock in one hand and a pen in the
other, and so make sure of your opportunity.”
- Incorrect.*—2. “From the last hill that looks on thy once holy dome,
I beheld thee, O Sion! when rendered to Rome
’Twas thy last sun went down, and the flames of thy
fall
Flashed back on the last glance I gave to thy wall.”
3. “The wicked flee, when no man pursueth but the
righteous, are bold as a lion.”

REM.—The Colon is not much used by late writers—its place being supplied by the Semicolon, the Dash, or the Period.

PERIOD.

RULE 10.—The Period is used at the close of a complete or independent proposition.

OBS.—The Period is also used after initial letters and abbreviations.

EXAMPLES.

- Correct.*—J. Q. Adams, LL.D., M. C.
- Incorrect.*—A S Barnes and Co 51 John St N Y.

DASH.

RULE 11.—The Dash is used to indicate—

1. An abrupt transition.
2. An unfinished sentence.
3. A succession of particulars.

EXAMPLES.

Correct.—1. “They met to expatiate and confer on state affairs—to read the newspapers—to talk a little scandal—and so forth—and the result was—as we have been told—considerable dissipation.”—*Wilson's Burns*.

Incorrect.—2. “To me the ‘Night Thoughts’ is a poem on the whole most animating and delightful amazingly energetic full of the richest instruction improving to the mind much of it worthy of being committed to memory some faults obscure extravagant tinged occasionally with flattery.”

OBS. 1.—The Dash is often used instead of the Parenthesis.

EXAMPLE.—“As they disperse they look very sad—and, no doubt they are so—but had they been, they would not have taken to digging.”

OBS. 2.—Many modern writers use the Dash in place of the Semicolon and the Colon—and sometimes with them.

EXAMPLE.—“Ye have no need of prayer ;—
Ye have no sins to be forgiven.”—*Sprague*.

EXCLAMATION.

RULE 12.—The mark of Exclamation is used after a Word, Phrase, or Sentence whose prominent office is to express sudden or intense emotion.

EXAMPLES.

Correct.—1. “Hark! a strange sound affrights mine ear.”

2. “To arms!—they come!—the Greek, the Greek!”

Incorrect.—3. “O my coëvals, remnants of yourselves.”

4. “Poor human ruins tottering o'er the grave.”

INTERROGATION.

RULE 13.—The mark of Interrogation is used after a Word, Phrase, or Sentence by which a question is asked.

EXAMPLES.

Correct.—1. “Why is my sleep disquieted?”

2. Who is he that calls the dead?


Incorrect.—3. “Is it for thee the lark ascends and sings.”

4. “What pleasing study cheats the tedious day.”

REM.—When the Interrogation or Exclamation is used, the Comma, Semicolon, Colon, or Period is omitted.

GRAMMATICAL AND RHETORICAL SIGNS.

Obs.—The signs used in writing are—

1. The Apostrophe.....	'	8. Inflections	{ Rising.....	'
2. The Quotation.....	“ ”		{ Falling.....	`
3. The Hyphen.....	-		{ Circumflex..	^
4. The Bracket	[]	9. Measures	{ Long	—
5. The Parenthesis.....	()		{ Short	^
6. References	* †	10. Caret.....		^
7. The Brace	{ }	11. Dieresis.....		¨
		12. Index.....		
		13. Section		§
		14. The Paragraph.....		¶

DEF. 3.—*The Apostrophe* (') is used to indicate the omission of a letter, and to change a Noun into a Possessive Specifying Adjective.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “Hearts, from which 'twas death to sever;
2. Eyes, this world can ne'er restore.”
3. “How lightly mounts the Muse's wing.”

DEF. 4.—*The Quotation* (“ ”) is used to inclose words taken from some other author or book.

EXAMPLE.—“Southey, among all our living poets,” says Professor Wilson, “stands aloof and ‘alone in his glory.’”

REM.—A Quotation quoted is indicated by single marks.

EXAMPLE.—[See the latter part of the last Example.]

DEF. 5.—*The Hyphen* (-) is used between two elements of a compound word.

EXAMPLES.—Money-market—ink-stand—black-board.

REM.—It is also used at the end of a line, when the word is not finished. [See this remark.]

DEF. 6.—*The Bracket* [] is used to inclose a letter or mark given as an explanatory example, or a Word, Phrase, or Sentence thrown in by a reviewer, and not a part of the original sentence.

EXAMPLE.—“Mr. Secor found means to have Mr. Butler recommended to him [Lord Talbot] for his chaplain.”

DEF. 7.—*The Parenthesis* () is used to inclose a Phrase or Sentence explanatory of, or incidental to, the main Sentence.

EXAMPLE.—“Come, my Ambition! let us mount together,
(To mount Lorenzo never can refuse,)
And, from the clouds where pride delights to dwell,
Look down on earth.”

REM.—Modern writers often use the Dash for the same purpose.

EXAMPLE.—“The monotony of a calm—for the trade-wind had already failed us—was agreeably relieved yesterday by the neighborhood of two ships, etc.”—*Malcolm*.

DEF. 8.—*References* (* † ‡ §) direct attention to notes at the margin or the bottom of the page.

REM.—The letters of the Latin or Greek alphabets, and sometimes figures, are used for the same purpose.

DEF. 9.—*The Brace* (}) is used to include many species in one class.

EXAMPLE.—Adjectives are distinguished as $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Qualifying,} \\ \text{Specifying,} \\ \text{Verbal.} \end{array} \right.$

REM.—By the old poets, the Brace was also used to join the lines of a triplet.

DEF. 10.—*Inflections* (' ^) indicate elevations or depressions of the key-note in reading.

EXAMPLES.—“Do you go to Albany'?” “I go to Utica^.”

DEF. 11.—*Measures*. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (-) \text{ indicates the long sound of a} \\ \text{Syllable, as h\`ate, m\`ete, n\`ote.} \\ (\check{\text{v}}) \text{ indicates the short sound of a} \\ \text{Syllable, as h\`at, m\`et, n\`ot.} \end{array} \right.$

DEF. 12.—*The Caret* (\wedge) is used between two Words, to indicate the place of words omitted and placed above the line.


EXAMPLE.—“The proper study ^{of mankind} \wedge is man.”

DEF. 13.—*Dieresis* ($\ddot{\text{}}$) is placed over the second of two vowels, to show that they belong to different syllables.

EXAMPLES.—Preëmption.—Coëval.—Reëducate.

OBS.—The Hyphen is sometimes placed between the vowels for a similar purpose.

EXAMPLE.—Co-operate.

DEF. 14.—*The Index* () is used to point out a word or sentence considered worthy of special notice.

DEF. 15.—*The Section* (§) marks the divisions of a chapter or book.

DEF. 16.—*The Paragraph* (¶) is used when a new subject of remark is introduced.

REM.—The sign of the Paragraph is retained in the Holy Scriptures; but in other compositions the Paragraph is sufficiently indicated by its commencing a new line on the page.

DEF. 17.—*Accent* is a stress of voice placed on a particular syllable in pronouncing a word.

DEF. 18.—*Emphasis* is a stress of voice placed on a particular word in a Sentence.

OBS.—This mark is indicated—

1. In manuscript, by a line drawn under the emphatic word.
2. On a printed page, by the use of *Italic* letters—CAPITAL letters are used to indicate words still more emphatic.

COMPOSITION.

DEF. 19.—Composition—as the word implies—is the art of *placing together* words so as to communicate ideas.

PROSE AND VERSE.

In *Prose Composition*, Words and Phrases are arranged with a primary reference to the *sense*.

In *Verse*, the Sound and Measure of Words and Syllables determine their position.

OBS.—Among the various kinds of Prose Compositions may be mentioned the following :

Narrative, Descriptive, Didactic, Historical, Biographical.

VERSE.

DEF. 20.—Verse consists of words arranged in measured lines, constituting a regular succession of accented and unaccented Syllables.

OBS.—Verse is used in Poetry. The different kinds of Poetry are—

<i>Lyric,</i>	<i>Charade,</i>	<i>Sonnet,</i>
<i>Dramatic,</i>	<i>Ballad,</i>	<i>Pastoral,</i>
<i>Epic,</i>	<i>Epigram,</i>	<i>Elegiac,</i>
<i>Didactic,</i>	<i>Epitaph,</i>	<i>Mudrigal.</i>

DEF. 21.—LYRIC POETRY is—as its name imports—such as may be set to music. It includes the “Ode” and the “Song.”

OBS. 1.—Lyric Poetry is of three kinds, the Ode, the Hymn, and the Song.

OBS. 2.—The *Ode* is generally longer than the other kinds of Lyric Poetry, and is often irregular in its structure.

Familiar Examples.—“Alexander’s Feast,” by *Dryden*.
 “Ode on the Passions,” “*Collins*.
 “Immortality,” “*Wordsworth*.”


~~Let~~ Let the Pupil give other Examples.

OBS. 3.—The *Hymn* is shorter, and is arranged in regular stanzas adapted to sacred worship.

Familiar Examples.—"The Psalms and Hymns" in general use in Christian congregations.

OBS. 4.—The *Song* is also short, but is more varied in its stanzas, and is adapted to secular uses.

Familiar Examples.—"Irish Melodies," by *Moore*.
 "Songs," " *Barry Cornwall*."


 Let the Pupil give other Examples.

REM.—English Lyric Poetry makes use of Rhyme exclusively.

DEF. 22.—EPIC POETRY is a historical representation—real or fictitious—of great events.

REM.—*Epic Poetry* may employ either rhyme or blank verse.


EXAMPLES.—*Rhyme.*—"Lady of the Lake," by *Scott*.
 "Curse of Kehama," " *Southey*.
Blank Verse.—"Paradise Lost," " *Milton*.
 "Course of Time," " *Pollock*."

 Let the Pupil give other Examples.

DEF. 23.—DRAMATIC POETRY is a poem descriptive of scenes, events, or character, and is adapted to the stage.


OBS.—It includes $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{The Tragic and} \\ \text{The Comic.} \end{array} \right.$

EXAMPLES.—*Tragic.*—"Othello," by *Shakspeare*.
 Comic.—"All's Well That Ends Well," by *Shakspeare*.

 Let the Pupil give other Examples.

DEF. 24.—DIDACTIC POETRY is that style adapted to the inculcation of science or duty.

EXAMPLES.—"Pleasures of the Imagination," by *Akenside*.
 "Art of Preserving Health," " *Armstrong*."

 Let the Pupil give other Examples.

DEF. 25.—The CHARADE is a short poem, usually in a Lyrical form, containing a *Riddle*.

DEF. 26.—An EPIGRAM is a witty poem, short, and generally abounding in ludicrous expressions.

EXAMPLE.—“Swans sing before they die; 'twere no bad thing
Should certain persons die before they sing.”

DEF. 27.—An EPITAPH is a poetic inscription to the memory of some departed person.

EXAMPLE.—“Underneath this stone doth lie
As much beauty as could die,
Which in life did harbor give
To more virtue than doth live.”—*Jonson*.

DEF. 28.—ELEGIAC POETRY is that species used to commemorate the death of some person.

EXAMPLES.—“Lysidas,” by *Milton*.
“Elegy,” “*Gray*.”

DEF. 29.—The SONNET is a Poem devoted to the development of a single thought, in rhyming verse of a peculiar structure, and generally of fourteen lines.

DEF. 30.—The MADRIGAL is a Lyric Poem of an amatory nature, and of a lively species of verse.

DEF. 31.—PASTORAL POETRY relates to rural life, and is generally a song.

EXAMPLES.—“Rural Sports,” by *Gay*.
“The Falls of the Passaic,” by *Irving*.

DEF. 32.—The BALLAD is a Lyric Poem, of a Narrative cast, in a simple or rude style of composition.

EXAMPLE.—“Battle of Brunnenberg,” by *Ferriis*.

VERSIFICATION.

DEF. 1.—VERSIFICATION is the art of making verse—*i. e.*, the proper arrangement of a certain number of Syllables in a line.

NOTE.—There are two prominent distinctions in Verse,

1. *Blank Verse.*
2. *Rhyme.*

DEF. 2.—BLANK VERSE consists in measured lines usually of ten Syllables each, and which may or may not end with the same sound.

EXAMPLE.—“ ’Tis midnight’s holy hour ; and silence now
Is brooding, like a gentle spirit, o’er
The still and pulseless world. Hark ! on the winds
The bell’s deep tones are swelling ; ’tis the knell
Of the departed year.”

DEF. 3.—RHYMING VERSE consists of measured lines, of which two or more end with the same sound.

EXAMPLES.

Rhymes successive.—“ Thou bright glittering star of even !
Thou gem upon the brow of heaven !
Oh ! were this fluttering spirit free,
How quick ’twould spread its wings to thee !”

Rhymes alternating.—“ Oh ! sacred star of evening, tell
In what unseen celestial sphere
Those spirits of the perfect dwell—
Too pure to rest in sadness here.”

DEF. 4.—A line in Poetry is technically called a *Verse*.

EXAMPLE.—“ And I am glad that he has lived thus long.”

REM.—Verses are of different lengths.

DEF. 5.—A half verse is called a *Hemistich*.

EXAMPLE.—“ I, too, will hasten back with lightning speed,
To seek the hero.”

DEF. 6.—Two rhyming verses which complete the sense are called a *Couplet*.

EXAMPLES.—1. “ Look round our world ; behold the chain of love,
Combining all below and all above.”
2. “ And more true joy Marcellus exiled feels,
Than Cæsar with a senate at his heels.”

DEF. 7.—Three verses which rhyme together are a *Triplet*.

EXAMPLE.—“So fair, so sweet, withal so sensitive,
 Would that the little flowers were born to live,
 Conscious of half the pleasure which they give.”

DEF. 8.—Four lines or more are called a *Stanza*.

EXAMPLE.—“Full many a gem of purest ray serene,
 The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear;
 Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
 And waste its sweetness on the desert air.”

NOTE.—Verses may end with { Rhyming *Syllables*, or
 Rhyming *Words*.

EXAMPLE.—“We come, we come, a little band,
 As children of the nation;
 We are joined in heart, we are joined in hand,
 To keep the Declaration.”

REM.—In the above stanza, the first and third lines end with Rhyming *Words*—the second and fourth, with Rhyming *Syllables*.

DEF. 9.—A collection of Syllables is called a *Foot*.

NOTE.—A Foot may consist of { two Syllables, or
 three Syllables.

DEF. 10.—Feet of two Syllables are the

Trochee . . . first long, second short . . . — ◡
Iambus . . . first short, second long . . . ◡ —
Pyrrhic . . . both short ◡ ◡
Spondee . . . both long — —

Feet of three Syllables are the

Dactyl one long and two short — ◡ ◡
Anapest two short and one long ◡ ◡ —
Amphibrach . first short, second long, third short. ◡ — ◡
Tribrach . . . three short ◡ ◡ ◡

REM.—Most English Poetry is written in Iambic, Trochaic, or Anapestic Verse.

TROCHAIC VERSE.

1. *Hexameter, or six feet.*

“On a | mountain | stretched be | neath a | hoary | willow,
Lay a shepherd swain, and viewed the rolling billow.”

2. *Pentameter, or five feet.*

“Rouse him | like a | rattling | peal of | thunder.”

3. *Tetrameter, or four feet.*

On the | mountain's | top ap | pearing,
Lo, the sacred herald stands !

4. *Trimeter, or three feet.*

“How I | love to | see thee,
Golden evening sun.”

5. *Dimeter, or two feet.*

Rich the | treasure,
Sweet the pleasure.

6. *Monameter, or one foot.*

Ring-
Sing-
ing.

IAMBIC VERSE.

1. *Six feet.*

The praise | of Bac | chus then | the sweet musi | cian sung.

2. *Five feet.*

Oh, I | have loved | in youth's | fair ver | nal morn,
To spread | ima | gina | tion's wild | est wing.

3. *Four feet.*

There is | a calm | for those | who weep,
A rest | for wea | ry pil | grims found.

4. *Three feet.*

What sought | they thus | afar ?
Bright jew | els of | the mine ?

5. *Two feet.*

“I am | the grave.”

6. *One foot.*

“My home.”

ANAPÆSTIC VERSE.

1. *Four feet.*

But we stead | fastly gazed | on the face | o' th' dead.

2. *Three feet*

“And I loved | her the more | when I heard
Such tenderness fall from her tongue.”

3. *Two feet.*

“För thê nīght only drāws
A thin veil o'er the day.”

DACTYLIC VERSE.

1. *Four feet.*

Come, ye dis | console, | where'er ye | languish

2. *Three feet.*

Earth has no | sorrows that | Heaven can not | heal

3. *Two feet.*

Free from anx | iety,
Care, and satiety.

4. *One foot.*

Chēerfully,
Fearfully.

THE AMPHIBRACH.

“There is a | bleak desert | where daylight | grows weary
Of wasting its smiles on a region so dreary.”

“With storm-dar | ing pinion | and sun-ga | zing eye,
The gray forest eagle is king of the sky.”

“There's pleasure | in freedom | whatever | the season.
That makes every object look lovely and fair.”

Obs. 1.—The first syllable of a verse is sometimes omitted.

EXAMPLES.

[] “And there | lay the ri | der, distort | ed and pale,
With the dew | on his brow | and the rust | on his mail.”

OBS. 2.—A syllable is sometimes added to a line.

EXAMPLES.

“Earth has no | sorrows that | Heaven can not | *heal.*”

“A guar | dian an | gel o’er | my life | presid | ing,
Doubling my pleasures and my cares dividing.”

OBS. 3.—The different measures are sometimes combined in the same line.

EXAMPLES.

“May comes, | May comes, | we have called | her long,
May comes | o’er the moun | tains with light | and song ;
We may trace | her steps | o’er the wak | ening earth,
By the winds | which tell | of the vio | let’s birth.”

OBS. 4.—Sometimes the last syllable of a line becomes the first syllable in the first foot of the next.

EXAMPLE.

“On the cold | cheek of death | smiles and ro | ses are blend | ing,
And beau | ty immor | tal awakes | from the tomb.”

FIGURES.

NOTE.—Language is modified in its structure, style, and utterance by the use of *Figures*.

DEF. 1.—A *Figure* of speech is a licensed departure from the ordinary structure or use of a word in a Sentence.

OBS.—Figures are employed to give *strength*, *beauty*, or *melody* to Language.

NOTE.—*Figures* are { Grammatical or
Rhetorical.

DEF. 2.—A *Grammatical Figure* is a deviation from the ordinary *form* or *office* of a word in a Sentence.

DEF. 3.—A *Rhetorical Figure* is a deviation from the ordinary application of words in the expression of thought.

I. FIGURES MODIFYING THE FORMS OF WORDS

These are called—

<i>Aphæresis,</i>	<i>Synæresis,</i>
<i>Prosthesis,</i>	<i>Diacresis,</i>
<i>Apocope,</i>	<i>Syncope,</i>
<i>Paragoge,</i>	<i>Tmesis.</i>

DEF. 4.—*Aphæresis* allows the elision of one or more of the first letters of a word.

EXAMPLES.

1. "Mid scenes of confusion."
2. "And therefore thou may'st think my 'havior light."—*Juliet*.
3. "What! have you let the false enchanter 'scape?"—*Milton*.

DEF. 5.—*Prosthesis* allows a syllable to be prefixed to a word.

EXAMPLES.

1. "Else would a maiden blush *be*paint my cheek."—*Juliet*.
2. "Let fall *a*dowm his silver beard some tears."—*Thomson*.
3. "The great archangel from his warlike toil
*Sur*ceased."—*Milton*.

DEF. 6.—*Apocope* allows the elision of one or more of the final letters of a word.

EXAMPLES.

1. "And that is spoke. . with such a dying fall."
2. "Tho' the whole loosened Spring around her blows."
3. "T' whom th' archangel."—*Milton*.

DEF. 7.—*Paragoge* allows a syllable to be annexed to a word.

EXAMPLES.

1. "Withouten trump was proclamation made."—*Thomson*.
2. "Nor deem that kindly nature did him wrong."—*Bryant*.

DEF. 8.—*Synæresis* allows two syllables to become one.

EXAMPLES.—Extra s^ession—ordinary session—extraordinary session.

DEF. 9.—*Diacresis* separates two vowels into different syllables.

EXAMPLES.—Coöperate—reïterate.

DEF. 10.—*Syncope* allows one or more letters to be taken from the middle of a word.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “Or serve they as a *flow’ry* verge to bind
 2. The fluid skirts of that same *wat’ry* cloud,
 3. Lest it again dissolve and *show’r* the earth.”—*Milton*.

DEF. 11.—*Tmesis* allows a word to be inserted between the parts of a compound word.

EXAMPLE.—“*How* MUCH *soever* we may desire it.”

OBS.—Sometimes two figures are combined in the same word.

EXAMPLE.—“Ah! whence is that sound which now *larums* his ear?”

II. FIGURES MODIFYING THE OFFICES OF WORDS.

These are called

RHETORICO-GRAMMATICAL FIGURES.

They are—

<i>Ellipsis,</i>	<i>Syllipsis,</i>
<i>Pleonasm,</i>	<i>Enallage.</i>
<i>Hyperbaton.</i>	

DEF. 12.—*Ellipsis* allows the omission of one or more words necessary to complete the grammatical construction, when custom has rendered them unnecessary to complete the sense.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “Thou art perched aloft on the beetling crag,
 And the waves are white below [].”
 2. “Unnumbered systems [], suns, and worlds,
 Unite to worship thee,
 3. While thy majestic greatness fills
 Space [], Time [], Eternity.”

DEF. 13.—*Pleonasm* allows the introduction of words not necessary to complete the grammatical construction of a Sentence.

- EXAMPLES.—1. “The moon *herself* is lost in heaven.”
 2. “I sit *me* down, a pensive hour to spend.”

DEF. 14.—*Syllipsis* allows a word to be used not in its literal sense.

EXAMPLE.—“And there lay the steed, with his nostril *all* wide.”

DEF. 15.—*Enallage* allows the use of one word for another of similar origin, or the substitution of one modification for another.

EXAMPLE.—“A world *devote* to universal wreck.”

DEF. 16.—*Hyperbaton* allows the transposition of words in a Sentence.

EXAMPLE.—“His *voice* SUBLIME, is heard afar.”

III. FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

They are—

<i>Simile,</i>	<i>Antithesis,</i>	<i>Vision,</i>
<i>Metaphor,</i>	<i>Metonymy,</i>	<i>Paralepsis,</i>
<i>Allegory,</i>	<i>Synecdoche,</i>	<i>Climax,</i>
<i>Personification.</i>	<i>Apostrophe,</i>	<i>Anti-Climax,</i>
<i>Irony,</i>	<i>Interrogation,</i>	<i>Alliteration.</i>
<i>Hyperbole,</i>	<i>Exclamation,</i>	

DEF. 17.—A *Simile* is a direct comparison.

EXAMPLE.—“The Assyrian came down like the wolf on the fold.”

DEF. 18.—A *Metaphor* is an indirect comparison.

EXAMPLE.—“There is a tide in the affairs of men,
Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune.”

DEF. 19.—An *Allegory* is an extended metaphor, by which a narration, real or fictitious, is made to convey an analogous truth or fiction.

EXAMPLE.—“Eternity’s vast ocean lies before thee ;
There, there, Lorenzo, thy Clarissa sails ;
Give thy mind sea-room ; keep it wide of Earth—
That rock of souls immortal ; cut thy cord ;
Weigh anchor ; spread thy sails ; call every wind ;
Eye thy great Pole-star ; make the land of life.”

DEF. 20.—*Personification* represents inanimate things as being endowed with life and volition.

EXAMPLES.—1. “And old *Experience* learns too late
That all is vanity below.”

2. “*Joy* has her tears, and *Transport* has her death.”

DEF. 21.—*Irony* makes a sentence convey a meaning the opposite of its ordinary sense.

EXAMPLE.—“And we, *brave men*, are satisfied
If we ourselves escape his sword.”

DEF. 22.—*Hyperbole* exaggerates the truth.

EXAMPLE.—“With fury driven,
The waves mount up, and *wash the face of heaven*.”

DEF. 23.—*Antithesis* contrasts two or more things with each other.

EXAMPLES.—1. “*Zealous* though *modest*, *innocent* though *free*.”

2. “*By honor* and *dishonor*, *by evil* report and *good* report,
as *deceivers*, and yet *true*.”

DEF. 24.—*Metonymy* puts one thing for another—

The cause for the effect,

The effect for the cause,

The container for the thing contained,

An attribute or quality for the thing or person.

EXAMPLES.—1. “Shall the *sword* devour for ever?”

2. “Thy *hand*, unseen, sustains the poles.”

3. “His *ear* is ever open to their cry.”

4. “I am much delighted in reading *Homer*.”

5. “He has returned to his *cups* again.”

6. “I’ll plunge thee headlong in the *whelming tide*.”

DEF. 25.—*Synecdoche* puts a part for a whole, and a whole for a part.

EXAMPLES.—1. “When the tempest stalks abroad,
Seek the shelter of my *roof*.”

2. “Oh! ever cursed be the *hand*
That wrought this ruin in the *land*.”

DEF. 26.—*Apostrophe* is a sudden transition from the subject of a discourse to address a person or thing, present or absent.

EXAMPLE.—“This is a tale for fathers and for mothers. *Young men and young women, you can not understand it.*”—*E. Everett.*

DEF. 27.—*Interrogation* expresses an assertion in the form of a question.

EXAMPLES.—1. “Looks it not like the king?”
2. “He that formed the eye, shall he not see?”

DEF. 28.—*Exclamation* expresses a sudden or intense emotion.

EXAMPLE.—“O liberty! O sound once delightful to every Roman ear!”

DEF. 29.—*Vision* represents past or future time as present to the view.

EXAMPLE.—“I see them on their winding way,
About their ranks the moonbeams play.”

DEF. 30.—*Paralepsis* is a figure by which a main truth is expressed incidentally, or with a professed effort of the speaker to conceal it.

EXAMPLE.—“*Without alluding to your habits of intemperance, I would ask, how can you attempt to justify your present inattention to business and the neglect of your family?*”

DEF. 31.—*Climax* is that form of expression by which the thoughts are made to rise by successive gradations.

EXAMPLE.—“He aspired to be the highest; above the people, above the *authorities*, above the LAWS, above his COUNTRY.”

DEF. 32.—*Anti-Climax* is the opposite of the climax.

EXAMPLE.—“How has expectation darkened into anxiety, *anxiety* into dread, and dread into despair.”—*Irving.*

DEF. 33.—*Alliteration* is the repetition of the same letter at the beginning of two or more words immediately succeeding each other.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "Up the high hill he heaves a huge, round stone."
 2. "He carves with classic chisel the Corinthian capital that crowns the column."

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

PAGE.

- 282.—What is PROSODY?
 Name the different *marks of punctuation*.
 When is a *Comma* properly used?
 When a *Semicolon*?—a *Colon*?—a *Period*?
 When is a *Dash* properly used?—an *Exclamation*?
 When do we use a mark of *Interrogation*?
- 288.—Name the GRAMMATICAL SIGNS.
 What is an *Apostrophe*?—a *Quotation*?—a *Hyphen*?
 What is a *Bracket*?—a *Parenthesis*?—*Reference marks*?
 What is a *Brace*?—*Marks of Inflection*?—*Measures*?
 What is a *Caret*?—a *Dieresis*?—an *Index*?—a *Section*?
 What is a *Paragraph*?—How are Paragraphs commonly indicated?
 What is *Accent*?—What is *Emphasis*?
- 291.—What is COMPOSITION?—What are the varieties?
 What is *Prose*?—Name the various kinds of *Prose*.
 What is *Verse*?—When properly used?
 Name and define the various kinds of *Poetry*.
- 294.—What is VERSIFICATION?
 What are the distinctions of verse?
 What is *Blank Verse*?—What is *Rhyming Verse*?
 What is a *Verse*?—a *Hemistich*?—a *Couplet*?
 What is a *Triplet*?—What is a *Stanza*?
 What is a *Foot*?—A Foot may have how many Syllables?
 What are the Feet of two Syllables?—of three Syllables?
 What is a *Trochee*?—an *Iambus*?—a *Pyrrhic*?—a *Spondee*?
 What is a *Dactyl*?—an *Anapest*?—an *Amphibrach*?—a *Tribrach*?
 What measures are commonly used in English Poetry?
- 298.—What is a FIGURE OF SPEECH?—Why are they used?
 What is a *Grammatical Figure*?—a *Rhetorical Figure*?
 Name the figures which modify the forms of Words.

APPENDIX.

REM.—Orthography properly belongs to a separate branch of the Science of Language. The following Synopsis is given, chiefly to present the Author's views as to the proper method of presenting this subject.

DEF.—Orthography is that branch of the Science of Language which treats of LETTERS—their forms, their offices, and their combinations in the structure of WORDS.

OBS. 1.—The English Language has twenty-six Letters, which are distinguished by their *forms* and by their *uses*.

OBS. 2.—The various *forms* of letters are exhibited in the following table :

ROMAN—*Capitals.*

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M
N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z

Small.

a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m
n	o	p	q	r	s	t	u	v	w	x	y	z

ITALIC—*Capitals.*

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M
N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z

Small.

a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m
n	o	p	q	r	s	t	u	v	w	x	y	z

OLD ENGLISH—*Capitals.*

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M
N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z

Small.

a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m
n	o	p	q	r	s	t	u	v	w	x	y	z

Obs. 1.—Roman letters are in most common use in the English language.

Italic Letters are used in words of special importance, and sometimes in Sentences.

In the Sacred Scriptures, words supplied by the translators to complete the construction of Sentences according to the English idiom, are printed in *Italics*.

Old English Letters are used for variety or ornament—in title-pages, etc.

Obs. 2.—The small, or “lower case,” Letters are used in forming most Words, and constitute the appropriate form of letters now used in printed works—with the following **Exceptions**, which provide for the use of

CAPITAL LETTERS.

RULE 1.—A word should begin with a capital letter when it is the first word of a distinct proposition.

RULE 2.—When it is a Proper Name, or a word immediately derived from a Proper Name.

EXAMPLES.—Boston—William—American.—Vermont.

RULE 3.—When it is a name or appellation of the Supreme Being.

EXAMPLES.—God—Saviour—Holy Spirit—Lord—Omnipotent.

RULE 4.—When it is the first word of a line of poetry.

EXAMPLE.—“Twinkle, twinkle, little star,
How I wonder what you are!
Up above the world so high,
Like a diamond in the sky.”

RULE 5.—When it is a principal word in a title of a book or office, and sometimes when it is a word of special importance, or used technically.

EXAMPLES —1. “Willard’s History of the United States.”
2. “Burke on the Sublime and Beautiful.”
3. “The Subject of a Verb should not take the place of the Object.”

RULE 6.—When it commences a direct quotation.

- EXAMPLES.**—1. “The footman, in his usual phrase,
Comes up with ‘Madam, dinner stays.’”
2. “Wo to him that saith unto the wood, ‘Awake.’”

RULE 7.—When it constitutes the Pronoun “I” or the Exclamation “O.”

- EXAMPLE.**—“O, I have loved in youth’s fair vernal morn,
To spread Imagination’s wildest wing.”

RULE 8.—When it is a Common Noun fully personified.

- EXAMPLES.**—1. “Sure I Fame’s trumpet hear.”—*Cowley*.
2. “Here Strife and Faction rule the day.”

OBS.—Letters are of various sizes, and have their corresponding appropriate names. The varieties of type in most common use are the following :

1. *Pica.*—ABCDEFGHIJKLMN OPQRSTUVWXYZ. abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz.

2. *Small Pica.*—ABCDEFGHIJKLMN OPQRSTUVWXYZ. abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz.

3. *Long Primer.*—ABCDEFGHIJKLMN OPQRSTUVWXYZ. abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz.

4. *Bourgeois.*—ABCDEFGHIJKLMN OPQRSTUVWXYZ. abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz.

5. *Brevier.*—ABCDEFGHIJKLMN OPQRSTUVWXYZ. abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz.

6. *Minion.*—ABCDEFGHIJKLMN OPQRSTUVWXYZ. abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz.

7. *Nonpareil.*—ABCDEFGHIJKLMN OPQRSTUVWXYZ. abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz.

8. *Agate.*—ABCDEFGHIJKLMN OPQRSTUVWXYZ. abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz.

9. *Pearl.*—ABCDEFGHIJKLMN OPQRSTUVWXYZ. abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz.

10. *Diamond.*—ABCDEFGHIJKLMN OPQRSTUVWXYZ. abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz.

THE OFFICES OF LETTERS.

NOTE.—Letters constitute the Elements of Words, and, like the Elements of Sentences and Phrases, are distinguished as *Principal Elements* and *Adjunct Elements*

DEF. 1.—The *Principal Elements* of a Word are the Letters which indicate the principal sound. They are called VOWELS.

EXAMPLES.—*a* in *mate*—*e* in *me*—*oi* in *toil*—*ou* in *sound*—*ä* in *hät*—*ë* in *mët*—*æ* in *aphæresis*—*æ* in *subpæna*.

DEF. 2.—The *Adjuncts* of a Word are the Letters prefixed or added to the Principal Elements to modify their sound. They are called CONSONANTS.

EXAMPLES.—*m* in *mate*, *me*—*t* in *mate*, *time*—*l* in *toil*, *lame*—*c* in *cider*, *cane*—*h* in *hat*, *hate*—*s* in *aphæresis*, *sound*—*v* in *vile*, *twelve*—*p* in *post*, *happy*.

REM.—For convenience in articulation, most words are divided into Parts, called *Syllables*; hence,

DEF. 3.—A *Syllable* is a whole Word, or such part of a Word as is uttered by one impulse of the voice.

EXAMPLES.—*Man*—*man-ly*—*man-li-ness*—*un-man-ly*.

DEF. 4.—When a Word has but *one* Principal Element, it is pronounced by one impulse of the voice, and is then called a *Monosyllable*.

EXAMPLES.—*Hand*—*fall*—*me*—*so*—*strength*.

DEF. 5.—When a Word has *two* Principal Elements, it requires two articulations, and is then called a *Dissyllable*.

EXAMPLES.—*Handsome*—*falling*—*strengthen*—*holy*.

DEF. 6.—When a Word has *three* Principal Elements, it requires three articulations, and is then called a *Polysyllable*.

OBS. 1.—Generally a Word has as many Syllables as it has Principal Parts.

OBS. 2.—Two Letters may form one Principal Element of a Word when they are placed together and combine to form one sound.

EXAMPLES.—*oi* in *toil*—*ou* in *sound*—*ai* in *fair*.

OBS. 3.—A Letter ordinarily used as a Vowel is sometimes added to a Syllable or a Word, to modify the Sound of other Letters, and is then an Adjunct.

EXAMPLES.—*e* in *time*—*y* in *they*—*i* in *claim*.

OBS. 4.—One Letter is often made to represent the Sound of another.

EXAMPLES.—*e* represents *a* in *they*—*e* represents *i* in *her*—*i* represents *u* in *sir*.

OBS. 5.—In *written Language*, many Letters are used which are not sounded in *spoken Language*. Such are called *Silent Letters*.

EXAMPLES.—*Hymn*—*thumb*—*eight*—*phthisic*.

OBS. 6.—One or more of the Letters constituting a Word are sometimes used as the representative of that word. These are called

ABBREVIATIONS.

The most common abbreviations are the following—

A. C.	Before Christ.	from the Latin	Ante Christum.
A. B.	Bachelor of Arts.	“	Artium Baccalaureus.
A. D.	In the year of our Lord.	“	Anno Domini.
A. M.	{	Master of Arts	“ Artium Magister.
		In the year of the world.	“ Anno Mundi.
		In the forenoon.	“ Ante Meridiem.
B. D.	Bachelor of Divinity.	“	Baccalaureus Divinitatia.
D. D.	Doctor of Divinity	“	Doctor Divinitatis.
e. g.	For example.	“	Exempli gratia.
i. e.	That is.	“	Id est.
LL.D.	Doctor of Laws.	“	Legum Doctor.
L. S.	Place of the Seal.	“	Locus Sigilli.
Messrs	Gentlemen.	French	Messieurs.
M. D.	Doctor of Medicine.	Latin	Medicinæ Doctor.
MS.	Manuscript.	“	Scriptum Manus.
N. B.	Take notice.	“	Nota Bene.
P. M.	{	Afternoon	“ Post Meridiem.
		Postmaster.	
P. S.	Postscript	“	Post Scriptum.
S. T. D.	Doctor of Theology.	“	Sanctæ Theologiæ Doctor.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

CLARK'S DIAGRAM SYSTEM.

Clark's First Lessons in Grammar	50
Clark's English Grammar	1 00
Clark's Key to English Grammar	*75
Clark's Analysis of the English Language	60
Clark's Grammatical Chart	*3 75

The theory and practice of teaching grammar in American schools is meeting with a thorough revolution from the use of this system. While the old methods offer proficiency to the pupil only after much weary plodding and dull memorizing, this affords from the inception the advantage of *practical Object Teaching*, addressing the eye by means of illustrative figures; furnishes association to the memory, its most powerful aid, and diverts the pupil by taxing his ingenuity. Teachers who are using Clark's Grammar uniformly testify that they and their pupils find it the most interesting study of the school course.

Like all great and radical improvements, the system naturally met at first with much unreasonable opposition. It has not only outlived the greater part of this opposition, but finds many of its warmest admirers among those who could not at first tolerate so radical an innovation. All it wants is an impartial trial, to convince the most skeptical of its merit. No one who has fairly and intelligently tested it in the school-room has ever been known to go back to the old method. A great success is already established, and it is easy to prophecy that the day is not far distant when it will be the *only system of teaching English Grammar*. As the SYSTEM is copyrighted, no other text-books can appropriate this obvious and great improvement.

Welch's Analysis of the English Sentence	1 25
--	------

Remarkable for its new and simple classification, its method of treating connectives, its explanations of the idioms and constructive laws of the language, &c.

POLITICAL SCIENCE.

Young Citizen's Catechism	75
-------------------------------------	----

Explaining the duties of District, Town, City, County, State, and United States Officers, with rules for parliamentary and commercial business—that which every future "sovereign" ought to know, and so few are taught.

Mansfield's Political Manual	1 50
--	------

This is a complete view of the theory and practice of the General and State Governments of the United States, designed as a text-book. The author is an esteemed and able professor of constitutional law, widely known for his sagacious utterances in matters of statecraft through the public press. Recent events teach with emphasis the vital necessity that the rising generation should comprehend the noble polity of the American government, that they may act intelligently when endowed with a voice in it.

ORTHOGRAPHY AND READING.

NATIONAL SERIES

OF

READERS AND SPELLERS, BY PARKER & WATSON.

The National Primer \$ 25
National First Reader	40
National Second Reader	75
National Third Reader	1 00
National Fourth Reader	1 60
National Fifth Reader	2 00
<hr/>	
National Elementary Speller	30
National Pronouncing Speller	50

This unrivaled series has acquired for itself during a very few years of publication, a reputation and circulation never before attained by a series of school readers in the same space of time. No contemporary books can be at all compared with them. The average annual *increase* in circulation exceeds 100,000 volumes. We challenge rival publishers to show such a record.

The salient features of these works which have combined to render them so popular may be briefly recapitulated as follows ;

1. **THE WORD METHOD SYSTEM.**—This famous progressive method for young children originated and was copyrighted with these books. It constitutes a process by which the beginner with *words* of one letter is gradually introduced to additional lists formed by prefixing or affixing single letters, and is thus led almost insensibly to the mastery of the more difficult constructions. This is justly regarded as one of the most striking modern improvements in methods of teaching.

2. **TREATMENT OF PRONUNCIATION.**—The wants of the youngest scholars in this department are not overlooked. It may be said that from the first lesson the student by this method need never be at a loss for a prompt and accurate rendering of every word encountered.

3. **ARTICULATION AND ORTHOEPY** are recognized as of primary importance.

The National Series of Standard School-Books.

ORTHOGRAPHY AND READING—Continued.

4. **PUNCTUATION** is inculcated by a series of interesting *reading lessons*, the simple perusal of which suffices to fix its principles indelibly upon the mind.

5. **ELOCUTION**. Each of the higher Readers (3d, 4th and 5th) contains elaborate, scholarly, and thoroughly practical treatises on elocution. This feature alone has secured for the series many of its warmest friends.

6. **THE SELECTIONS** are the crowning glory of the series. Without exception it may be said that no volumes of the same size and character contain a collection so diversified, judicious, and artistic as this. It embraces the choicest gems of English literature, so arranged as to afford the reader ample exercise in every department of style. So acceptable has the taste of the authors in this department proved, not only to the educational public but to the reading community at large, that thousands of copies of the Fourth and Fifth Readers have found their way into public and private libraries throughout the country, where they are in constant use as manuals of literature, for reference as well as perusal.

7. **ARRANGEMENT**. The exercises are so arranged as to present constantly alternating practice in the different styles of composition, while observing a definite plan of progression or gradation throughout the whole. In the higher books the articles are placed in formal sections and classified topically, thus concentrating the interest and inculcating a principle of association likely to prove valuable in subsequent general reading.

8. **NOTES AND BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES**. These are full and adequate to every want. The biographical sketches present in pleasing style the history of every author laid under contribution.

9. **ILLUSTRATIONS**. These are plentiful, almost profuse, and of the highest character of art. They are found in every volume of the series as far as and including the Third Reader.

10. **THE GRADATION** is perfect. Each volume overlaps its companion preceding or following in the series, so that the scholar, in passing from one to another, is barely conscious, save by the presence of the new book, of the transition.

11. **THE PRICE** is reasonable. The books were not *trimmed* to the minimum of size in order that the publishers might be able to denominate them "the cheapest in the market," but were made *large enough* to cover and suffice for the grade indicated by the respective numbers. Thus the child is not compelled to go over his First Reader twice, or be driven into the Second before he is prepared for it. The competent teachers who compiled the series made each volume just what it should be, leaving it for their brethren who should use the books to decide what constitutes true *cheapness*. A glance over the books will satisfy any one that the same amount of matter is nowhere furnished at a price more reasonable. Besides which another consideration enters into the question of relative economy, namely, the

12. **BINDING**. By the use of a material and process known only to themselves, in common with all the publications of this house, the National Readers are warranted to out-last any with which they may be compared—the ratio of relative durability being in their favor as two to one.







